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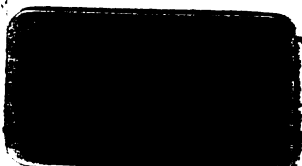
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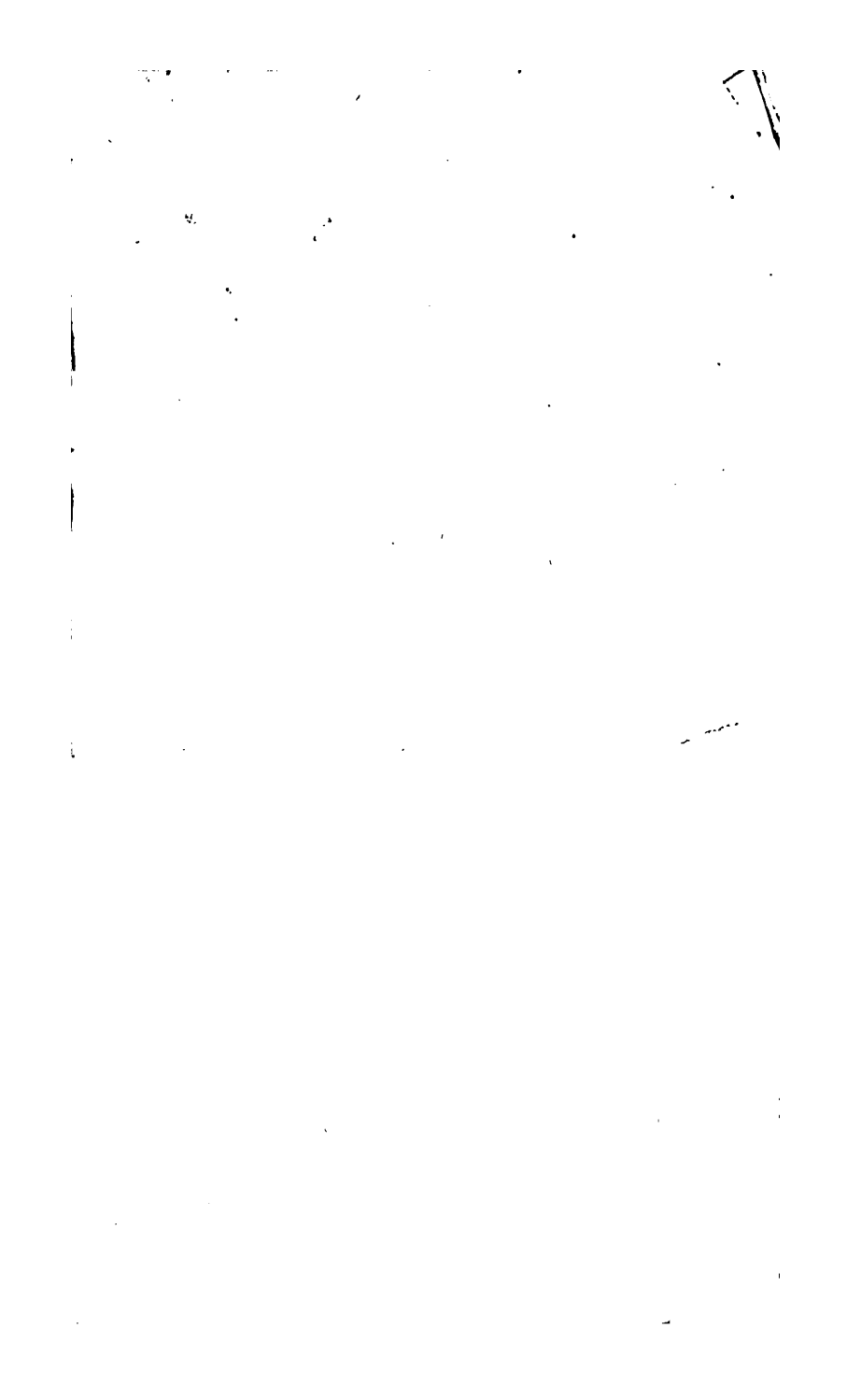
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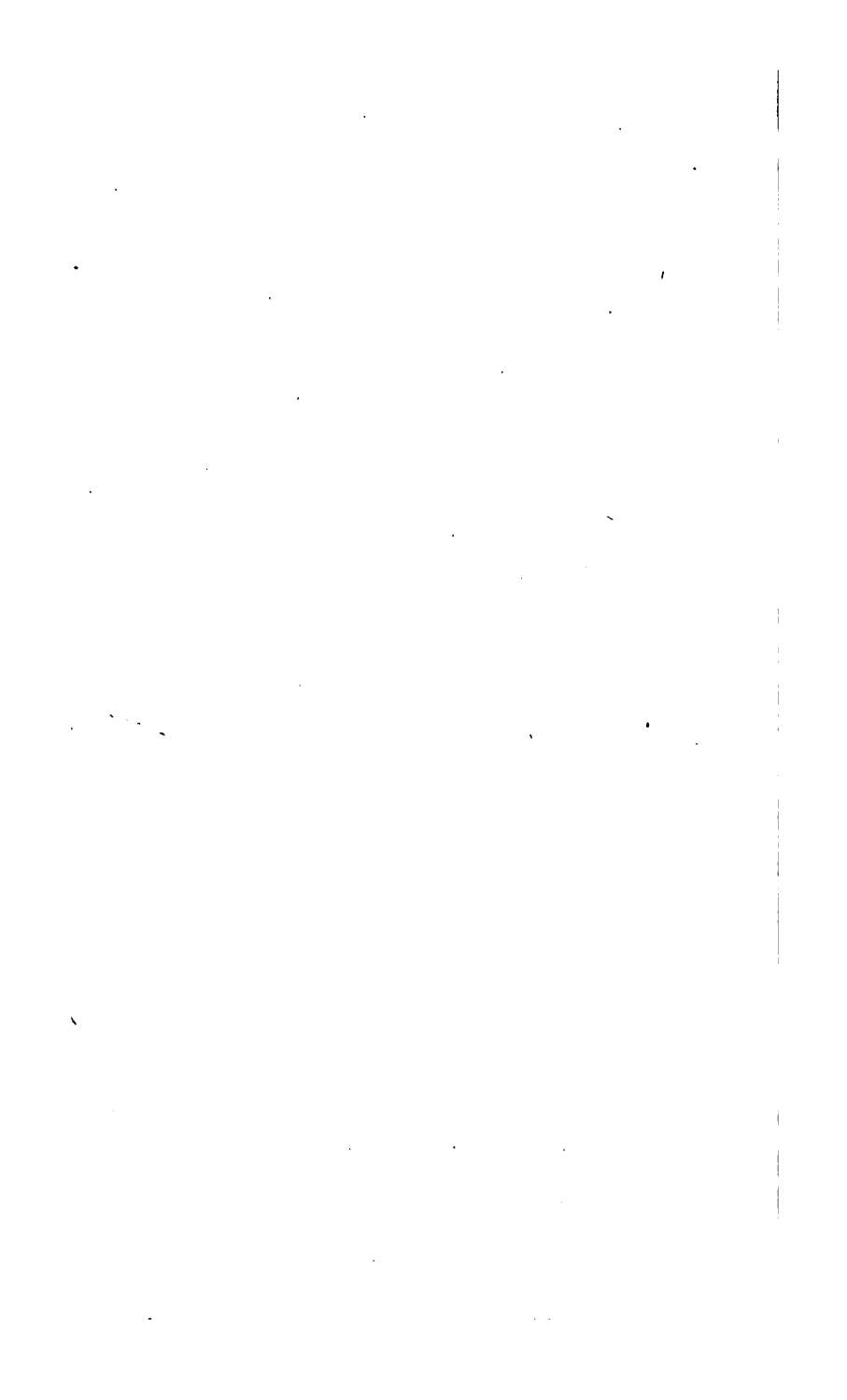


Samuel Sturge's Book

Sept 1<sup>st</sup> 1844

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**MURRAY'S**  
**ENGLISH GRAMMAR,**

REVISED, SIMPLIFIED, AND ADAPTED

TO THE

**INDUCTIVE AND EXPLANATORY**

MODE OF INSTRUCTION.

---

By H. T. N. BENEDICT, Teacher.

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**FRANKFORT, K.**

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**BE IT REMEMBERED,** That on the twentieth day  
{L. S.} of April, Anno Domini, one thousand eight hundred and  
thirty-two, H. T. N. BENEDICT, of the said District, hath  
deposited in this office, the title of a book, the title of which is in the  
words following, to-wit:

"Murray's English Grammar, revised, simplified, and adapted to the  
Inductive and Explanatory mode of instruction, by H. T. N. BENE-  
DICT, 'Teacher.'"

The right whereof he claims as author and proprietor, in conformity  
with an act of Congress entitled, "An act to amend the several acts res-  
pecting copy-rights."

**JOHN H. HANNA,**  
*Clerk of the District of Kentucky.*

## REVISER'S APOLOGY.

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IN presenting this revision and simplification of Murray's English Grammar, to the public, I have been actuated by a desire that the works of this distinguished grammarian should be adapted to the present improved method of communicating knowledge, and their benefits thus extended to the latest posterity.

That his Grammar, Exercises, and Key, form the most approved system of English Grammar, is demonstrable from the fact, that they are used as text books in almost, if not quite, all institutions of learning, both in England and America; and the various attempts to rob him of his justly deserved honours, by transposing and garbling the principles established by him, and palming them upon the public under other names, must be a source of regret to those who, like the reviser, have been benefitted by his labours.

Had Murray lived to witness the improvements in education which time and experience have developed, he, no doubt, would have adapted his works to that improvement; but that honour was denied him by Providence: and after doing more for the youth of America, his native country, than any other author who has attempted the compilation of elementary works, he has gone to his reward. But will a generous and enlightened people, a people who owe to him much of that intellectual advancement which we so justly boast, suffer his name to sink into forgetfulness, while others wear the palm due to him alone? May justice forbid it.

The principles contained in this revision, will be found generally to coincide with those of Murray. Where I am compelled to dissent from his opinions, the reasons for that dissent are plainly and simply

stated, and the teacher or learner is left to make his election.

In the arrangement of the Syntactical rules, I have scrupulously followed the arrangement of Mr. Murray, that the work may still be adapted to his exercises and key, without which a grammar must be incomplete.

The lists of questions found at the bottom of the pages in Orthography and Etymology, are designed to prevent careless reading and thoughtless recitation, two errors to which young persons are too frequently prone. It is hoped they will be found as useful as a body of *Philosophical notes*.

The copious variety of examples in Etymological and Syntactical parsing, is designed particularly for the benefit of such enterprising persons as are determined to become versed in the knowledge and use of their vernacular tongue, though deprived of the benefits of oral instruction.

Believing that the author's treatise on Prosody and Punctuation is well adapted to communicate a knowledge of those sciences in its present form, I have not attempted any alteration in that portion of the work.

The abridgement of Rhetoric is omitted, the necessity for its insertion being superseded by an abridgement of Blair's Rhetoric, for the use of schools.

Should this humble effort be found useful in smoothing the path of science for the learner, in aiding the conscientious teacher, and in bringing the works of this eminent grammarian into general use, by banishing the works of mutilators from our schools, the reviser will consider his time and labour well bestowed.

## ADDRESS TO TEACHERS.

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GENTLEMEN:

In presenting this humble effort to simplify and thereby improve Murray's Grammar, for your inspection and patronage, it becomes my duty to explain why I have departed from the practice of appending or prefixing a list of recommendations.

My reasons for this omission are the two following: First; I do not know that any recommendations could have been obtained; not having made any effort to that effect: Secondly; If obtained and embodied in the work, they would yield you no information, until the work came into your possession, and then would imply that *you* were incompetent to judge of the merit of the work, and must, therefore, submit to the opinions of the commanders.

As I harbor no such opinions of the capacity of any gentleman, qualified to superintend the education of youth, I have chosen rather to put it into your hands as an unprotected orphan, which must stand or fall by its own merit or demerit; hoping you will not be the less candid in judging on this account. Having been, for twenty-eight years, engaged in teaching, I am not unapprised of the difficulties and discouragements attendant upon your occupation. I have also been led frequently to contemplate upon its vast importance to the community, and the consequent responsibility that devolves upon you. Future presidents of this vast republic, as well as those who are to make the halls of Congress resound with the notes of freedom, are now receiving their first impressions, under your guidance. The commanders of our armies and navies, our future generals, who are to hurl the thunder bolts of war upon those who would oppress us, are now marshalling in your juvenile ranks.



The heralds of salvation, who are to proclaim the gospel news to future generations, and the members of the visible church, who are to supply our places in the holy sanctuary, are now looking to you for that instruction which shall qualify them for their important duties.

Beings, whom we must meet at that bar where each must give an account for himself, are now in their juvenile state surrounding you, and looking to you for those precepts and *examples* which shall enable them, in the formation of character and habits, to render their account with joy.

Upon your example and self-government, much will depend. How earnestly then, should you seek the blessing of God upon your endeavors, and his grace to enable you to discharge the arduous duties of your stations. How awful will be your account, if your example is on the side of passion, immorality, and *intemperance*. Here I beg leave to advert to an error too common in the infliction of punishments. It is too frequently administered in a vindictive manner, as if to revenge for the delinquency or the crime: this is erroneous. Let the crime be what it may, no punishment can undo the deed, nor is it proper that it should have an entire retrospective influence. To *prevent* the recurrence of the offence, should be the design of punishment, and prevention should always be satisfactory.

That indiscriminating harshness and severity of discipline which originated in the dark ages, under monarchical and despotic governments, should in no case be tolerated.

While I am ready to contend for strict order and discipline in the arrangement of a school, experience has taught that unfeeling severity is not the best method to obtain it. The law of kindness is far better. In cases where corporeal punishment can no longer be dispensed with, much will be achieved by blending affectionate admonitory advice. Hardened indeed must that youth be, who is proof against advice of this

kind, accompanied by a corresponding deportment. I wish, above all other considerations in your moral deportment and admonitions, to call your attention to the subject of temperance, or rather abstemiousness in the use of alcohol, in any of its variegated forms. The world has at length awaked to the awful results proceeding from drunkenness, and a simultaneous effort is being made to arrest the progress of this fell destroyer. But all agree in this, that for a general reformation we must look to the rising generation. The confirmed habits of the veteran of intemperance will hardly be broken, unless by a super-human influence: but the youth who has no relish for the poisonous draught, needs only to be warned of its consequences to make him shun it as the face of a deadly basilisk.

Here gentlemen, you can do more than any other men. The rising generation are daily with you, listening to your admonitions. Your example is daily before them, and exerting its influence upon their minds and actions. They are taught to look up to you as to a model from which they should endeavor to form their future conduct. But, Sirs, if those examples should be found on the side of licentiousness and folly, on the side of intemperance and passion, how awful, to them, will be the result! How will your country, as well as the blighted hopes of the heart stricken parent, be left to deplore the hour of their misplaced confidence. But above all, how terrible will that account be, which you must render of your stewardship. The parent will say, I placed my child under your tuition, to be instructed in the ways of virtue, temperance, and science, and you have led him to the gulph of infamy. Your country will say, I entrusted my sons with you for the purpose of improvement, and you have betrayed the trust reposed in you, and by your pernicious example, and your criminal negligence, have robbed me of their aid. But more fearful still, God will say, they shall indeed perish in their sins, but their blood will I require at *your* hands. Suffer me then, most earnestly to entreat you, whatever may be

your particular views on other subjects, to join heartily in this, and throw the whole weight of your influence and character on the side of *Temperance*. Warn them daily, against the insidious foe. Teach them that

"Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,  
That to be hated, needs but to be seen;  
Yet seen too oft, familiar with her face,  
We first endure, then pity, then embrace."

Under the full conviction that instruction in morality, temperance, and piety, are embodied in the duties of the teacher, as well as the advancement of scientific knowledge, I have hazarded the foregoing remarks; conscious that nothing can paint the colours of intemperate habits in too dark shades, I have used *ink*, the blackest material in my possession, to depict it; and shall only add, that the best wishes and earnest prayers for the prosperity of our juvenile institutions, will ever flow from the breast of

THE REVISER.

*Nicholasville, July 4, 1832.*

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## ADVERTISEMENT.

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Owing to the distance of my residence from the place of publication, and other circumstances beyond my controul, together with the difficulties incident to the *first* edition of a work of this nature, some *errors* have escaped observation. The principal ones are in punctuation; but it is not free from those of a different kind. In the exercises in parsing, at page 89, *the* is called an *indefinite article*, instead of definite, &c.

Owing, also, to the omission of the founder, to whom we sent for accented type, to send a *full* set of accented vowels, we have been obliged to omit the *accent* in some words to which it should have been appended. Should the work find a sufficiency of patronage to require a second edition, no pains shall be spared to make it entirely correct in the execution; and should any teacher or other person, suggest any alteration in the form, or matter, the alteration proposed will be thankfully received, duly weighed, and, if deemed of importance, promptly embodied in the work. As my only design is to be useful to the rising generation, any suggestions by which that usefulness may be increased, will always call forth my grateful acknowledgements, and receive merited attention.

All communications addressed to me, at the Post-Office, Nicholasville, Ky. *post paid*, will receive prompt attention.

REVISER.

## MURRAY'S ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE NINTH EDITION.

The eighth edition of this grammar received considerable alterations and additions: but works of this nature admit of repeated improvements; and are, perhaps, never complete. The author, solicitous to render his book more worthy of the encouraging approbation bestowed upon it by the public, has again revised the work with care and attention. The new edition, he hopes, will be found much improved. The additions, which are very considerable, are, chiefly, such as are calculated to expand the learner's views of the subject; to obviate objections; and to render the study of grammar both easy and interesting. This edition contains also a new and enlarged system of parsing; copious lists of nouns arranged according to their gender and number; and many notes and observations, which serve to extend, or to explain, particular rules and positions.

The writer is sensible that, after all his endeavors to elucidate the principles of the work, there are few of the divisions, arrangements, definitions, or rules against which critical ingenuity cannot devise plausible objections. The subject is attended with so much intricacy, and admits of views so various, that it was not possible to render every part of it unexceptionable; or to accommodate the work, in all respects, to the opinions and prepossessions of every grammarian and teacher. If the author has adopted that system which, on the whole, is best suited to the nature of the subject, and conformable to the sentiments of the most judicious grammarians; if his reasonings and illustrations, respecting particular points, are founded on just principles, and the peculiarities of the English language; he has, perhaps, done all that could reasonably be expected in a work of this nature; and he may warrantably indulge a hope, that the book will be still more extensively approved and circulated.

## PART 1<sup>ST</sup>.

### CHAPTER I.

#### SECTION 1. *Of Grammar in General.*

**G**RAMMAR is the science of language. Science is knowledge based upon *facts*. The facts upon which the knowledge of any language is based, must be derived from the correct speakers and writers of that language. Hence the practice of a majority of the best speakers and writers of any language is the standard of accuracy in the use of that language.

Grammar may be divided into general and particular.

General Grammar teaches those principles which are common to all languages.

Particular Grammar applies those general principles to a particular language, and teaches to change them as the genius of that language requires.

Rules of Grammar are intended to produce uniformity in the use of language. Uniformity constitutes correctness in the use of any language.

#### SECTION 2. *Of English Grammar.*

**ENGLISH GRAMMAR** is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety: or, English Grammar is a collection of observations, drawn from

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*Questions.*—What is Grammar? What is science? Whence are facts concerning language derived? What is the standard of accuracy in the use of a language? How is grammar divided? What does general grammar teach?—Particular grammar? What are the rules of grammar intended to produce? What constitutes correctness in the use of language? What is English Grammar?



the practice of correct writers of the language, to which the manner of speaking and writing English should be reduced.

Grammar is divided into four parts.

- |                 |             |
|-----------------|-------------|
| 1. ORTHOGRAPHY, | 3. SYNTAX,  |
| 2. ETYMOLOGY,   | 4. PROSODY. |

Orthography teaches the names and sounds of letters, and the proper manner of forming them into syllables and words.

Etymology teaches to class words according to their use in language, and shows their various changes, and derivations.

Syntax teaches to construct words into sentences by showing their agreement, government, connexion, and dependence.

Prosody may be divided into two parts. The first teaches the proper pronunciation of words, and comprises, *accent, quantity, emphasis, pause, and tone*. The second part teaches the rules for composing poetry, or the laws of versification.

## CHAPTER II.

### OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

The first part of Grammar is Orthography, which teaches the names and sounds of letters, and the proper manner of forming them into syllables and words.

The first requisite of a finished English education, is correct spelling. To aid the learner in acquiring this indispensable part of learning, the following plain and familiar rules are submitted, for his attentive perusal.

I would here inform the learner that the agreement of the verb with its nominative, which is the first important principle in language, as well

---

*Questions.*—Into how many parts is English Grammar divided? What does Orthography teach?—Etymology?—Syntax?—Prosody? What is the first part of grammar? What is the first requisite of a finished English education? On what does the agreement of the verb with its nominative &c. depend?

as, the gender, person, number, and case of pronouns: the number of nouns, the comparison of adjectives and adverbs, with many other important items in the progress of grammatical study, depend entirely on the spelling of words. Your future progress in this science will, therefore, depend greatly on your proficiency in this first part of grammar.

Orthography treats 1st of letters: 2nd of syllables, and 3d of words.

### SECTION 1. *Of Letters in General.*

A letter is the first principle, or least part of a word.

The English alphabet has twenty-six letters.

These letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter which can be perfectly sounded by itself. The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. *W* and *y* are consonants at the beginning of a word or syllable. In all other situations they are vowels.

A consonant is a letter which has no complete sound without the aid of a vowel; as, *b, d, f, l, &c.*

All letters except the vowels are consonants.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes form no articulate sound without the aid of a vowel. They are *b, p, t, d, k*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels (or half vowels) do not entirely intercept all sound. They are *f, l, m, n, r, s, v, z, x*, and *c* and *g* soft.

Four of the semi-vowels, *l, m, n, r*, are by some writers called liquids, from an idea that they resemble fluids, in easily flowing into the sounds of other letters.

A diphthong is the union of two vowels in the same

---

*Questions.*—On what will your future progress most depend? What is a letter? How many letters are there in the English alphabet? How are letters divided? What is a vowel? Repeat the vowels. When are *w* and *y* consonants? What is a consonant? How are consonants divided? Which are the semi-vowels? Which are the liquids? Which are the mutes? What is a diphthong?

syllable; as, *ea* in *beat*, *ou* in *sound*. When both the vowels are sounded it is called a proper diphthong; as, *oy* in *boy*, *ow* in *cow*. When only one of the vowels is sounded it is called an improper diphthong; as, *ea* in *beat*, *oa* in *goad*.

A triphthong is the union of three vowels in a syllable; as, *eau* in *beauty*, *iew* in *view*.

## SECTION 2. *Of the Sounds of the Letters.*

### A.

*A* has four sounds. 1st Long or slender *a*; as in *hate*, *fate*.

2nd. Broad *a*; as in *ball*, *tall*.

3d. Short *a*; as in *mat*, *bat*.

4th. Middle *a*; as in *mar bar*.

Double *a*, in proper names, generally sounds like short *a*; as, *Balaam*, *Canaan*.

*ai* generally sounds like long *a*; as *pail*, *sail*. In *pleid*, *railery*, the sound is that of short *a*, and in *again* it is that of short *e*.

*Au* sounds like broad *a*, in *taught*, *caught*, &c.

Like middle *a*, in *haunt*, *flaunt*, &c. and

Like short *o*, in *Laudanum*.

*aw* always sounds like broad *a*; as in *bawl*, *crawl*.

*ay* sounds like long *a*; as in *day*, *pay*, *say*.

### B.

*B* has the same sound at the beginning, middle, and end of words; as in *baker*, *number*, *rub*.

*B* is silent in *thumb*, *debtor*, &c. In some words silent *b*, after *m*, lengthens the foregoing vowel; as in *climb*, *comb*, &c.

### C.

*C* sounds like *k*, before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l*, and *r*; as, *cat*, *cord cut*, *cramp*, &c.

*C* sounds like *s* before *e*, *i*, and *y*; as, *cell*, *cit*, *cyprus*, &c.

*C* sounds like *k* at the end of words and syllables; as, *arc*, *arctic*, &c.

*C* is silent in *Czar*, *Czarina*, *virtuals*, *muscle*, &c.

*Ch*, in words of English origin, sounds like *tch*; as in *child*, *chair*, *church*, &c. In words from the Greek, the sound is that of *k*. In words from the French, *ch* has the sound of *sh*; as in *chaise*, *machine*, &c.

*Ch* is silent in *schedule*, *schism*, *schismatick*, &c.

**Questions.**—When is it called improper diphthong? When proper? What is a triphthong? How many sounds has *a*? Give examples. How is *ai* sounded? How is *au*?—*aw*?—*ay*? When is *b* silent? When does silent *b* lengthen the foregoing vowel? When does *c* sound like *k*? When like *s*? When is *c* silent? What sound has *ch* in words of English origin?—Of Greek?—Of French origin? When is *ch* silent?

D.

*D* has no variation in its sound, in any situation. Its sound is lost in that of *T*, in the contracted pronunciation of stuffed, cracked, tripped, winked, &c. pronounced stuff, crackt, &c.

E.

*E* has two distinct sounds; 1st. *e* long; as, mete, here, &c. 2d, *e* short; as in met, net, &c. It has also an indistinct, or almost imperceptible sound in final unaccented syllables; as in sceptre, spectre, lucre, &c.

*E* has two anomalous, or irregular sounds. 1st. That of short *i* in yes, pretty, England; 2d, of short *u*, in her. Some persons erroneously give this letter the sound of *a* in clerk, sergeant, &c.

*Ea* has the sound of long *e* in ear, eat, merit—of long *a* in bear, tear, wear, &c. and of short *e* in measure, treasure, pleasure, &c.

The triphthong *eau*, has the sound of long *o*, in beau, flambeau,—and of long *u*, in beauty, beauteous, &c.

*Ei* has the sound of long *e* in either, neither—of long *i*, in height, sleight—and of long *a*, in eight, weight.

*Eo* has the sound of short *e* in Leopard, jeopardy, &c.—of long *e* in people—and of short *u* in dungeon, surgeon, &c.

*Eu* and *ew* are sounded like long *u*; as in feud, dew, &c.

*Ey*, when accented, sounds like *a* long; as, prey, they, obey, except some monosyllables; as, ley, key: when unaccented, the sound is that of long *e*; as, alley, valley, &c.

F.

*F* has its natural soft sound, as heard in feet, left, in all words except *of*, in which it sounds like *v*.

G.

*G*, has two sounds, a hard one before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l*, and *r*; as in gave, go, gun, glove, gravel; a soft sound before *e*, *i*, and *y*; as in gelly, gipsy, elegy, &c. *G* is always hard at the end of words, and generally at the end of syllables.

*Gn*, at the end of accented syllables, gives the preceding vowel a long sound; as, condign, impugn.

*G*, before *n*, is always silent; as, sign, gnat, gnaw, &c.

*Gh*, at the beginning of words, has the sound of hard *g*; as, ghost, ghastly, &c. In the middle of words, it is generally silent; as, highly, brightly, brightness. At the end of words, it is sometimes silent, as in dough, though; it sometimes sounds like *f*; as, laugh, cough, enough; and sometimes it sounds like *g* hard; as, burgh, burgher.

H.

The sound signified by this letter, is, as before observed, an articulate sound, and not merely an aspiration. It is heard in the words heat, horse, hull. It is always silent after *r*, as in rhetoric, rheum, rhubarb. *H*, at

**Questions.**—Has *d* more sounds than one? What are the sounds of *e*? Tell the sounds of *ea*—Of the triphthong *eau*—Of *ei*—Of *eo*. What is the sound of *eu* and *ew*? Tell the sounds of *ey*. What sounds has *f*?—*g*?—*gn*? What sounds has *gh*? When silent? What is said of the sound of *h*?

the end of words following a vowel, is silent; as in *ah, oh, Hannah, Hallelujah.*

Teachers should be particular to inculcate a clear and distinct utterance of the sound marked by *h*.

## I.

*I* has a long sound; as in *fine*: and a short one; as in *pin*. *I* has the sound of short *u* in many words, when followed by *r*, as, *flirt, shirt, sir*. In words from the French it has the sound of long *e*; as in *pique, oblique*.

*ie*, has the sound of long *i*, in *die, pie, lie*—of long *e*, in *grief, brief, relief*; and of short *i*, in *sieve*.

## J.

*J* has the sound of soft *g* in all words, except *Hallelujah*—In this word it has the sound of *y*.

## K.

*K* has the sound of hard *c*; as in *king*. It is silent before *n*, as in *knot, know, knowledge*.

## L.

*L* has only one sound. It is silent in *half, calf, salve, &c.*

*L* is always silent before *m* in the same syllable; as in *calm, palm, alms, &c.* It is generally doubled at the end of monosyllables; as, *spell, spill, mill, bell, &c.* See Rule 1st for spelling.

## M.

*M* has only one sound. It is silent in *comptroller, pronounced controller*.

## N.

*N* has two sounds. 1st. Its pure or natural sound; as in *man, nut, Monadnock*. 2d. A ringing sound similar to that of *ng* before *k* and *qu*; as in *rank, banquet, &c.*

*N* following *m* in the same syllable is silent; as in *solemn, autumn, condemn, contemn, &c.*

## O.

*O* has four sounds. 1st. *O* long as heard in *note, dose, doe, foe*.

2d. *O* short, as heard in *not, got, nod, &c.*

3d. *O* middle, as heard in *move, prove, do, to, &c.*

4th. *O* broad before *r*, as in *nor, for, and ght*, as *bought, sought*.

*O* is frequently pronounced like short *u*; as, *son, ton, done, &c.*

*oe* has three different pronunciations.

1st. of long *e*; as in *Antoeci, foetus*.

2d. of short *e*; as in *Oedipus, ecumenicks*.

3d. of long *o*; as in *doe, foe, toe*.

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**Questions.**—What should teachers observe with regard to the sound of *h*? How many sounds has *I*?—*ie*? What sounds has *J*? What is the sound of *K*? When is it silent? When is *I* silent? When should *I* be doubled? When is *m* silent? How many sounds has *n*? When is *n* silent? What are the sounds of *o*? How many sounds has *oe*? Give examples.

*Oi* is always a proper diphthong combining the sounds of broad *a*, and long *e*; as in *boil*, *toil*, *coil*.

*Oo* has the sound of long *e* in *door*, *soor*; of middle *e* in *moon*, *noon*; and of short *u* in *blood*, *flood*.

*Ou* has six different sounds. 1st. A proper diphthong, combining the sounds of broad *a* and middle *u*; as in *bound*, *round*, *sound*. 2d. Of short *u*; as in *touch*, *journey*. 3d. Of middle *o*; as in *soup*, *croup*. 4th. Of long *o*; as in *dough*, *though*. 5th. Of short *o*; as *cough*, *trough*; and, 6th. Of broad *o* or *a*; as in *bought*, *sought*.

*Ow* is sometimes a proper diphthong; as in *vow*, *cow*, *town*; and, sometimes, it has the sound of long *o*; in *grew*, *sow*.

P.

*P* has one uniform sound; as in *put*, *cup*. It is frequently silent at the beginning of words; as in *psalter*, *psalm*, *pneumatics*, &c.

*Ph* has the sound of *f*; as in *philosophy*, in all words except *nephew* and *Stephen*, where it has the sound of *v*, pronounced *new*, *Steven*.

Q.

*Q* is always followed by *u*; and these two letters are pronounced like *kw*; as in *quack*, *quick*, *quail*.

R.

*R* is considered, by some writers, to have two sounds; one rough; as in *Rome*, *river*; the other smooth; as in *bard*, *card*. But it would, probably, require a nicer ear than ordinary, to make the distinction.

S.

*S* has four sounds. 1st. A soft sound; as in *so*, *sell*, *sun*. 2d. the sound of *s*; as in *devise*, *excuse*, *excise*. 3d. the sound of *sh*; as in *mission*, *passion*, *pension*. 4th. the sound of *sh*; as in *osier*, *brasier*.

*S* is silent in *isle*, *island*, *aisle*, *demeane*, *viscount*.

T.

The native sound of *t*, is that heard in *tatter*, *tittle*. When placed before *u*, following an accented syllable, it has the sound of *ch*; as in *nature*, *virtue*. In the termination *tion*, *ti* have the sound of *sh*; as in *nation*, *notion*. In the termination *tiate*, *tial*, and *tious*, the sound is, also, that of *sh*; as, *vitiate*, *partial*, *licentious*.

*Th* has two sounds, one soft and flat; as, *this*, *thus*; the other sharp and hard; as, *thick*, *thin*, *breath*. At the beginning of proper names *th* has the sound of *T*; as *Thomas*, *Thames*, *Thompson*.

U.

*U* has three sounds. 1st. A long slender sound; as in *tube*, *lure*; 2d. A short sound; as in *tun*, *tub*, *but*, &c. 3d. A middle sound; as in *bull*, *full*, *pull*, &c.

**Questions.**—What is the sound of *oi*?—Of *oa*?—Of *ou*?—Of *ow*? When is *p* silent? What are the sounds of *ph*? What is the sound of *qu*? What sounds has *r*? How many sounds has *s*? What are they? When is *s* silent? When has *t* the sound of *sh*? When has *t* the sound of *ch*? What are the sounds of *th*? How many sounds has *u*?

*U* has the sound of short *i* in *business*, *busy*, *busybody*; and the sound of short *e* in *bury*, *burial*, *burier*, &c.

*Ue* has the sound of short *e* in *guess*, *guest*.

*Ui* has the sound of short *i* in *build*, *built*, *builder*, &c.

## V.

*V* has one invariable sound; as in *voice*, *live*. It is silent in *seven*-*night*.

## W.

*W*, as its name imports, has a compound sound, a little like, and yet unlike, the sound of *oo*. Some writers have considered *w* as having the sound of *oo*; but this will appear erroneous from the pronunciation of the words *wo*, *woo*, *wood*, *wool*, &c. If we were to substitute *oo* for *w* in these words, they would, both appear, and sound, very awkwardly: Thus, *ooo*, *oooo*, *ooooo*, *ooooo*, &c.

*W* is a consonant, when it begins a word or syllable, and has a sound peculiarly its own. When it is a vowel, it has the sound of *u*.

## X.

*X* has three sounds. 1st. The sound of *z* at the beginning of Greek proper names: as, *Xerxes*, *Xenophon*, *Xanthus*, &c. 2d. the sound of *ks*, when it ends an accented syllable; as in *exercise*, *exist*. It sounds like *ks*, when the following accented syllable begins with a consonant; as, *excuse*, *expense*, *excel*, &c. 3d. the sound of *gs*, when it precedes an accented syllable, beginning with a vowel; as, *exist*, *exert*, *example*.

## Y.

*Y* as a consonant, has a sound peculiar to itself, perhaps, as nearly resembling the sound of *ye*, as any to which it can be compared. As a vowel *y* has the sound that *i* would have in the same situation.

## Z.

*Z* has the sound of flat or buzzing *s*; as in *buzz*, *buzzard*, *gizzard*, &c.

The foregoing remarks are far from comprising *all* the sounds to which the letters of our language are incident, in their various applications. They are intended to show you the importance of paying strict attention to the subject; especially to the sounds of the *vowels*, and the unaccented vowels in particular.

Scarcely any thing more distinguishes a learned, from an unlearned man, than the pronunciation of the unaccented vowels. When a letter is under the accent, we habitually give it the accustomed pronunciation; and that pronunciation is generally correct. But the unaccented vowels are frequently and grossly misused in this respect.

**Questions.**—When does *u* sound like short *i*? When like short *e*? What sound has *ue*?—*ui*? In what word is *v* silent? What is the sound of *w*? How will you prove that it has not the sound of *oo*? What sound has *w* when a vowel? What are the sounds of *x*? What does the sound of *y* resemble when it is a consonant? What sound has it when a vowel? What distinguishes a learned, from an unlearned man, in his pronunciation?

## CHAPTER III.

*Of Syllables, and Rules for their Division.*

A syllable is a sound, either simple or compounded, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice. A syllable sometimes forms a word, and sometimes part of a word; as, *a, an, ant, an-ti-cos-ti.*

Spelling is the art of rightly dividing words into their syllables, and of expressing a word by its proper letters.

I will now give some general rules for the division of words into syllables. If, after perusing these rules, you should find yourself at a loss in certain cases, you will do well to consider, *what division would lead to a correct pronunciation of the word; and divide the syllables accordingly.*

**RULE 1.** A single consonant between two vowels, must be joined to the latter syllable; as, de-light, bri-dal, re-source; except the letter *x*; as, ex-ist, ex-amine: except likewise, compounded words; as, up-on, un-even, &c.

**RULE 2.** Two consonants proper to begin a word, must not be separated; as, de-stry, fa-ble, sti-ple. But when they come between two vowels, and not proper to begin a word, they must be separated; as, ut-most, un-der.

**RULE 3.** When three consonants meet in the middle of a word, if they can begin a word, and the preceding vowel be pronounced long, they should not be separated; as, de-throne, de-stry. But when the foregoing vowel is short, one of the vowels belongs to the former syllable; as, dis-tract, disprove, &c.

**RULE 4.** When three or four consonants meet in the middle of a word, such of them as are proper to begin a syllable, belong to the latter syllable, and the rest to the former; as, ab-stain, com-plete, con-strain, hand-some, parch-ment.

**RULE 5.** Two vowels, not being a diphthong, must be divided into separate syllables; as, cru-el, so-ci-e-ty.

**RULE 6.** Compounded words should be divided according to the simple words from which they are formed; as, ice-house, apple-tree, never-the-less, &c.

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**Questions.**—What is a syllable? What is spelling? What is the general rule for the division of syllables?



**RULE 7.** Grammatical terminations, &c. are generally set in a separate syllable; as, teach-est, teach-eth, teach-ing, teach-er, great-er, great-est, good-ness, &c.

## CHAPTER IV.

### *Of Words in General, and Rules for Spelling.*

Words are articulate sounds, used as signs of our ideas. Words are of two kinds, primitive and derivative. A primitive word is that which cannot be reduced to a simpler word in the language; as, man, good, content. A derivative word is that which can be reduced to a simpler word in the language; as, manful, goodness, contentment. A word of one syllable is called a monosyllable; a word of two syllables, a dissyllable; a word of three syllables, a trissyllable; and words of more than three syllables, are called polysyllables, signifying *many* syllables.

Spelling is the art of rightly dividing words into syllables, and of expressing words by those letters which custom has rendered *proper*.

Much perplexity, with some degree of uncertainty, attends the orthography of our language. This perplexity arises, in part, from the diversity practised by writers, in their division of syllables; and partly from the difference of letters used in spelling the words.

To aid in removing these difficulties, the following general rules for spelling primitive and derivative words, are presented to the learner; rules which have been generally, if not universally received.

#### **RULE 1.**

Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, stuff, ruff, mill, pass, puss, &c. The only exceptions are, of, if, as, is, has, was, yes, his, this, us, and thus.

#### **RULE 2.**

Monosyllables ending with any consonant, except *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded

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**Questions.**—What are words? How many kinds of words are there? What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word? What is a word of one syllable called?—Of two syllables?—Of three syllables?—Of more than three syllables? What does polysyllable mean? What is spelling?

by a single vowel, never double the final consonant; excepting add, ebb, butt, egg, odd, err, inn, bunn, puzz, buzz.

### RULE 3.

Words ending with *y*, preceded by a consonant, form the plurals of nouns, the persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participles, comparatives, and superlatives, by changing the *y* into *ies*; as, spy, spies; I carry, thou carriest, he carrieth or carries, carried; happy, happier, happiest, &c. The present participles of verbs form an exception to this rule; as, carry, carrying; spy, spying, &c. When *y* helps to form a proper diphthong it is not changed into *i*; as, I cloy, thou cloyest, he cleys; boy, boyish, &c. In improper diphthongs the *y* is changed into *i*; as, pay, paid; say, said; lay, laid, lain, &c.

### RULE 4.

Words ending with *ya*, not a diphthong, when they assume an additional syllable beginning with a vowel, change the *y* into *i*; as, happy, happier, happiest: but in words of this kind, where *y* helps to form a diphthong, it is not changed into *i*; as, boy, boyish; annoy, annoying.

### RULE 5.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant, when they take another syllable beginning with a vowel; as, wit, witty; thin, thinish; abet, abettor. But if a diphthong precedes, or the accent is on the preceding syllable, the consonant is not doubled; as, toil, toiling; offer, offering; maid, maiden, &c.

### RULE 6.

Words ending with any double letter, but *l*, and taking *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful* after them, preserve the letter double; as, harmlessness, successful, stiffy, &c. But in words of this kind ending in *ll*, one *l* is usually omitted; as, fulness, skilful, &c.

### RULE 7.

Words ending in *e*, retain the *e* when *ness*, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*, are added; as, paleness, guileless, peaceful, surely, &c.

### RULE 8.

Words ending in *e* with *ment* added, usually retain the *e*; as, abatement, chastisement, &c. judgment, abridgment, &c. form exceptions to the 8th Rule. *Ment* changes *y* into *i* when preceded by a consonant; as, merry, merriment, &c.

### RULE 9.

*Able* and *ible*, when incorporated into words ending in *e*, cause the *e* to be dropped; as, cure, curable; sense, sensible; unless the final *e* serve to soften the sound of *c* or *g*; as, changeable, peaceable, &c.

## RULE 10.

When *ing* or *ish* is added to words ending in *e*, the *e* is omitted; as place, placing; slave, slavish, &c.

The preceding rules are sufficient to awaken your mind to the importance of acquiring a thorough knowledge of this important part of grammar. This you may acquire from the labour of the Lexicographer. Johnson and Walker have published Dictionaries, each possessing its excellence; and each laying claim to pre-eminence, as the standard of our language; Johnson's is generally admitted to be superior for spelling and definition, and Walker's for pronunciation.

It is, however, presumable, from the favorable mention made of Dr. Webster's Dictionary, both by American and British reviewers, that his is qualified to be the standard in all these respects.

Here I will manifest my regret for the erroneous manner in which the abridged editions of Walker's Dictionary, are executed: hoping by so doing, to call the attention of future publishers, to the necessity of a thorough revision and correction of the work. The Boston and Philadelphia editions, especially, require this attention.

## PART 2ND.

### OF ETYMOLOGY.

#### CHAPTER I.

*A general view of the Parts of Speech, with rules for distinguishing them.*

**T**HE second part of Grammar is ETYMOLOGY. It means the origin or pedigree of words, and teaches to class the words of the English language, according to their use in that language. It also teaches their changes and their derivations.

The words of the English language are divided into nine sorts, called parts of speech, viz: ARTICLE, NOUN, ADJECTIVE, PRONOUN, VERB, ADVERB, PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, and INTERJECTION.

Some writers enumerate ten parts of speech, ranking the Participle as one; but, as it is always derived from a verb, and always performs the office, either of a verb or an adjective, and has no distinctive construction in a sentence, it seems not entitled to this distinction. The difference in the two opinions, results in the same conclusion, consequently no great importance should be attached to either.

1. An ARTICLE is a letter or word placed before nouns, to point them out, (that is, to show that they are nouns,) and to limit their signification; as, *a garden, an eagle, the universe, &c.*

*A, an, and the,* are all the articles we have. You cannot be at a loss to know an article.

2. A NOUN is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *man, river, state, city, Edwin.*

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**Questions.**—What is the second part of Grammar? What does Etymology mean? What does it teach? How many parts of speech are there? Repeat them. Why should not the Participle be ranked among the parts of speech? What is an Article? What words are articles? What is a noun?

A noun may be known by its taking an article before it; or by its being the name of any thing that you can see, hear, taste, smell, feel, think of, or talk about.

3. An **ADJECTIVE** is a word added (adjected) to a noun, to show its quality, colour, or kind; as, a *good* man, a *virtuous* woman, a *red* or *green* apple, &c.

You may know an adjective by its making sense with the word *thing*, or any other noun after it; or by its denoting the quality, colour, or kind, of any noun or pronoun. Any word placed between an article and its noun, *must* be an adjective.

4. A **PRONOUN** is a word used in place of a noun, generally to avoid repeating the noun; as, the *man* is happy because *he* is benevolent; for benevolence renders *him* happy.

Any word used instead of a noun, making the same sense that the noun would, if used, is a pronoun. Pronoun means for a noun, or in place of a noun.

5. A **VERB** is a word which signifies, to **BE**, to **DO**, or to **SUFFER**, or to receive an action; as, *I am*, *I rule*, *I am ruled*.

You may know a verb either by its making sense with *to* before it; as, *to walk*, *to learn*; or any word that will conjugate is a verb; as, *I learn*, *thou learnest*, *he learns* or *learneth*, &c.

We have many words that are used, both as verbs and nouns. You will be able to distinguish them by their use and construction in the sentence.

6. An **ADVERB** is a word or short phrase that serves to qualify a Verb, Participle, or Adjective; as, he speaks *fluently*, and reasons *cogently*.

You may generally know an adverb by its answering to the questions, *how?* *how much?* *when?* or *where?* as, *how does he speak?* *Fluently*. *How does he reason,* *cogently*, &c.

7. **PREPOSITIONS** serve to connect words, and to show the relation between them; as, he went *from* Buffalo *to* Black-rock, and then went *down* the river *to* the great falls.

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**Questions.**—How may a noun be known? What is an adjective? How may an adjective be known? What is a pronoun? How may a pronoun be distinguished? What is a verb? How can you know a word to be a verb? Have we any words that are sometimes used as verbs and sometimes as nouns? What is an adverb? How can an adverb be known? Give examples. What are prepositions?

A preposition may generally be known by its admitting the objective case of any of the personal pronouns after it; as, *with him, to them, by us, after me, &c.*

8. CONJUNCTIONS are chiefly used to connect sentences, so as to form one compound sentence out of two or more simple sentences; sometimes they connect words only; as, thou *and* he are happy, *because* you are good; two *and* three are five.

9. INTERJECTIONS are exclamatory words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express passion or emotion; as, *O!* I have alienated my friend; *Alas!* I fear for life.

Interjections are the only words ranked among the parts of speech in a written language, that do not mark an idea, or some circumstance of an idea; or serve as a connective of words which represent ideas. The interjection does none of these; but serves merely to mark passion or emotion; and, therefore, has no syntactical construction. The interjection may be considered a virtual sentence, in which the noun and verb are concealed under an imperfect and indigested word.

## CHAPTER II.

### OF ARTICLES.

An article is a word placed before nouns to point them out, and to show how far their signification extends; as, *a* garden, *an* eagle, *the* woman, &c.

The English language has two articles, *a* and *the*.

*A* is written *an* when placed before a word beginning with a vowel or a silent *h*; as, *an* axe, *an* hour.

*A* does not become *an* when the *h* is sounded, or when placed before a word beginning with long *u*; as, *a* horse, *a* unit, *a* unicorn, &c.

*A* or *an* is called the indefinite article; *the* is called the definite article.

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*Questions.*—How may a preposition be known? What is the use of conjunctions? What are interjections? Have interjections any Syntactical construction? What is an article? How many articles are there? When is *a* written *an*? When does *a* not become *an*? What is *a* or *an* called? What is *the* called?

The indefinite article *a* or *an*, is used to point out one thing of the kind, but does not determine which; as, *a* man, *a* book, that is, any man, one book, one among all books.

The definite article *the* is used to limit the noun to a particular object or collection of objects; as, *the* man, *the* men, *the* book, *the* books.

A noun unlimited by an article is generally taken in its widest sense; as, a candid temper is proper for *man*; that is, for all mankind.

The articles are not used before nouns which are the names of the different virtues, vices, passions, metals, minerals, fossils, herbs, &c.; as, *vice* is odious, but *virtue* is lovely. *Gold* is found in South America, and *lead* in Missouri. *Diamonds* are dug out of the earth, *grass* grows on its surface, &c.

Words used for proper names, do not admit of an article prefixed, nor the plural form superadded.

When an article is prefixed to a proper name, it changes it to a common noun; as, *Bolivar* is the *Washington* of South America.

The indefinite article *a* or *an* is used before singular nouns only, unless the adjective *few*, great many, dozen, hundred, score, thousand, million, &c. come between the article and plural noun; as, a *few* men, a *thousand* horses.

The definite article *the* is sometimes prefixed to adverbs, in the comparative and superlative degrees, and helps to form an adverbial phrase; as, *the more* I see it, *the better* I like it; I like this *the least* of any.

### CHAPTER III.

#### SECTION 1. *Of nouns in General.*

A noun is the name of any thing that exists, or of which we can form any idea; as, world, man, virtue, goodness.

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*Questions.*—What is the use of *a* or *an*? What is the use of the definite article? In what sense is a noun taken without any article before it? Before what nouns are the articles omitted? What do proper names not admit? What effect have articles when placed before proper names? When may *a* or *an* be placed before plural nouns? Is *the* ever placed before adverbs? What is a noun?

Nouns are of two kinds, common and proper.

Common nouns are names which stand for kinds, sorts, or species of things; as, animal, man, horse, tree, country.

Proper nouns are the names by which an individual or individuals are distinguished from their species or kind; as, George, Lexington, Huron, Eliza, &c.

Some writers make the following subdivision, viz :

1st. Collective nouns or nouns of multitude; as, the people, the army.

2d. Abstract nouns, or names of qualities abstracted from their substances; as, coolness, whiteness, goodness, darkness.

3d. Natural nouns, or the names of things formed by nature; as, man, tree, beast, bird, plant, &c.

4th. Artificial nouns or names of things formed by art; as, book, vessel, house.

5th. Verbal or participial nouns; as, beginning, reading, writing.

But these divisions are rather curious, than useful; and, for all necessary purposes, the division of nouns into proper, and common, is deemed sufficient.

To nouns belong, Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

Gender is the distinction of sex. Nouns have three genders, the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter, or no gender.

In compliance with the general practice of writers on grammar, I have enumerated three genders, yet my conviction on the subject compels me to dissent from that enumeration. If gender is the *distinction of sex*, how can more genders apply to nouns, than there are sexes to distinguish. It is readily admitted that neuter is a negative term and means neither, and that neuter gender means no sex.

But why should we perplex the learner with a foreign term, which does not clearly communicate to his mind the idea intended, in preference to using a familiar expression, which is readily understood? Would it not be better to teach him that nouns have only two sexes, the male and female, and consequently only two genders; and that all nouns and pronouns which are neither masculine nor feminine, have *no gender*, because they have *no sex*? I have pursued this method with several classes, and find it advantageous. The examples of parsing found in this work, will be given in this manner.

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**Questions.**—How many kinds of nouns are there? What are common nouns? What are proper nouns? What are collective nouns? Abstract nouns? Natural nouns? Artificial nouns? What are participial nouns? What belong to nouns? What is gender? How many genders have nouns?



The Masculine gender denotes the male sex; as, a man, a boy.

The Feminine gender denotes the female sex; as, a woman, a girl.

Neuter gender is *no gender*, it denotes no sex; as, a knife, a pen.

Some nouns which have no sex, have the masculine or feminine pronoun referring to them, in figurative language, or when that figure is used, which Rhetoricians call *prosopopæia* or personification: in plain English, when that which is not a person is represented as performing personal acts. Thus we say of the sun, *he* is setting, *he* shines, &c.; of the moon, *she* shines; and of a ship, *she* sails well, &c.

The masculine pronoun *he*, is generally referred to nouns which are conspicuous for the attributes of imparting, or communicating; and which are naturally strong and efficacious. *He* is generally referred to *time*, *death*, &c.

The feminine pronoun *she*, is applied to such nouns as are conspicuous for the attributes of receiving or containing. Thus *she* is referred to the moon, because *she* receives the sun's rays. It is also referred to the earth, to a ship, country, city, &c. It is usually referred to virtue, fortune, and the church, when personified.

The English language has three methods of distinguishing the sexes.

1st. By different words, as

<i>Male,</i>	<i>Female,</i>	<i>Male,</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Batchelor,	Maid,	Friar,	Nun,
Boy,	Girl,	Husband,	Wife,
Brother,	Sister,	Lord,	Lady,
Father,	Mother,	Man,	Woman, &c.

2d. By a difference in the termination or ending of the noun, as

<i>Male,</i>	<i>Female,</i>	<i>Male,</i>	<i>Female,</i>
Abbott,	Abbess,	Bridegroom,	Bride,
Actor,	Actress,	Duke,	Dutchess,
Administrator,	Administratrix,	Hero,	Heroine, &c.

**Questions.**—What does the masculine gender denote? What does the feminine denote? Why are nouns called no gender? To what nouns is the pronoun *he* figuratively applied? To what is *she* applied? How many methods has the English language to distinguish the sexes? What is the first? Repeat some examples. What is the second manner of distinguishing the gender of nouns?

3d By a noun, pronoun, or adjective prefixed to the noun, as

*Male,*  
Man Servant,  
Male Child,

*Female,*  
Maid Servant,  
Female Child, &c.

It sometimes happens that the noun may represent either a male or a female. Thus, the word parent may mean father or mother; child may mean a son or a daughter. Of this kind are neighbour, cousin, relative, acquaintance, &c. You will generally be able to determine the sex of such nouns by attending to the scope of the sentence.

We also have some plural nouns which comprise, or may comprise both males and females. Thus parents means both father and mother. Children, cousins, neighbors, &c. may include both males and females.

Nouns which have a distinctive form to determine their gender, contribute to conciseness and perspicuity of expression; and we frequently feel some perplexity on account of the deficiency of our language in this respect; for when we say of a woman, she is an astronomer, a philosopher, &c. we feel an impropriety in the termination which we cannot avoid.

### SECTION 3. *Of Number.*

Number is the consideration of an object, as one, or more than one. Nouns have two numbers, the singular and the plural.

The singular number expresses one object; as, a chair, a knife, a pen, a table, &c.

The plural number expresses more objects than one; as, chairs, knives, pens, tables.

By noticing these examples, you will perceive that the plurals all end in *s*, and that the singulars do not. You will also perceive that those which end in *s*, mean more than one object of the kind expressed, thus *pens* means more pens than one, and *knives* also. By considering a little on the subject, you will readily comprehend all that is implied in number.

We have some nouns which are always singular; as, wheat, gold, sloth, pride, &c.: and others that are always plural; as, bellows, scissors, snuffers, tongs, ashes, riches, lungs, breeches, &c. We have also some nouns which have the same form in both numbers; as, deer, sheep, swine.

*Questions.*—What is the third manner of distinguishing the gender of nouns? Is the same noun sometimes masculine or feminine? Speak some plural nouns that represent both males and females? What is number? How many numbers have nouns? What does the singular number express? What does the plural number express? Speak some nouns which are always used in the singular. Speak some that are always plural. Speak some which have the same form in both numbers.

The word *news* is always considered singular. Thus we say, what *is* the news, not what *are*, &c. The words means, alms, and amends may be used both in the singular and plural number, according to the idea we intend to convey. See the notes under the 8th rule of *Syntax*, where this matter will be explained.

The correctness and propriety of language, depend much on the number and person of the noun and verb. Indeed, without a knowledge of these, you will not be able to speak or write correctly; therefore, I earnestly solicit your attention to the subject, until you comprehend it. To be able to repeat, in a heedless manner, what is found in the book on this subject, will avail you little, unless you gain the ideas represented by the words you repeat.

We have a variety of manner in the formation of the plural number of nouns. A great number form the plural by adding *s* or *es* to the singular; as, box boxes, dove doves, face faces, lash lashes, &c.

Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, form the plural by changing *fe* into *ves*; as, loaf loaves, knife knives, &c. Grief, relief, and some others, do not change the *f*; grief griefs.

Nouns which end in *y* in the singular, with no other vowel in the syllable, change the *y* into *ies* in the plural; as, fly flies, beauty, beauties; but the diphthongal *y* is not changed into *ies*; as, attorney attorneys, key keys, delay delays, &c.

We have many nouns which do not form their plurals according to any general rule. Such as man men, goose geese, mouse mice, foot feet, tooth teeth, &c.

We have some words in English, adopted from those languages which are generally styled the learned, which do not conform to our modes of expression. Some of them are always plural; as, antipodes, credenda, literati, minutia, &c. Others are used both in the singular and plural; as, hiatus, apparatus, series, species, &c.

#### SECTION 4. *Of Person.*

PERSON is one of the properties of the noun and pronoun, which varies the verb. Hence it is important in language.

There are three persons used in language, first, second, and third. The first person denotes the speaker; the second person denotes the person spoken to;

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*Questions.*—Of what number is news? How are means, alms, and amends used? On what do the correctness and propriety of language much depend? Repeat the various ways of forming the plurals of nouns. Speak some nouns which form their plurals irregularly. Speak some from foreign languages, that are always plural. Speak some, used in both numbers. What is person? How many persons are used in language? What are they? What is the use of the first person? What does the second person denote?

the third person denotes the person or thing spoken of. *Nouns* are never of the first person, because when a speaker or writer refers to himself, he uses the pronouns, *I, my* or *mine; me*; or, if in the plural, he uses *we, our* or *ours, us*.

Nouns are of the second or third person. When of the second person, they are always in the nominative case, independent, because they are used in a direct address; as, Listen O *Earth!*

Nouns in the nominative case to a verb, in the nominative case absolute before a participle, in the possessive case, or in the objective case, governed by a verb, participle or preposition, *must* be in the *third* person. This remark will be important to you in parsing. Notice it if you please. The form of the verb depends upon the number and person of its nominative case. You must, therefore be diligent in your inquiries, until you comprehend the subject. The principle contained in the first rule of Syntax depends entirely upon the number and person of the noun and pronoun.

### SECTION 5. *Of Case.*

In calling your attention to case, it becomes my duty to inform you that it is one of those things in grammar which requires close thinking. Gender, Person, and Number have their foundation in the nature of things: but case is wholly of grammatical origin; hence it is not easily comprehended by the young learner. If you will do *me* the favor and *yourself* the justice to pay close attention to the following remarks, it shall be my endeavor to make the matter as plain as possible.

Case; when applied to nouns and pronouns, means the situation or position which they have in the sentence, with respect to the words with which they stand connected.

In English, nouns and pronouns have three cases, the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

The nominative case simply expresses the name of the thing; or it denotes the subject of a verb: as, the

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*Questions.*—What does the third person denote? How many persons have nouns? In what case are all nouns of the second person? On what does the form of the verb depend? What is necessary to understand case? Of what nature is case? What is case? How many cases have nouns? What are they? What is the use of the nominative case?

boy plays, the girls learn, the wind blows. When the nominative case simply denotes the name of a person or thing, it is of the second person, and nominative case independent. In this case it is frequently followed by a command; as, John, attend to your lesson.

The possessive case denotes the possessor of something, and is marked by an apostrophe (') and generally the letter *s* following it; as, John's horse, Eliza's book.

A noun in the possessive case is generally followed by a noun denoting the object or thing possessed, by which it is governed; as, my father's house, the draper's company. When the plural noun ends in *s*, or the singular in *ss*, the apostrophe only is used to mark the possessive case; as, Eagles' wings, for goodness' sake. The reason of this is, the additional *s* would give a disagreeable *sis* to the sound of the word.

A noun in the objective case is the object of an action, or of a relation. The objective case is known by its following a transitive verb, a participle derived from a transitive verb, or a preposition.

When a noun or pronoun follows a transitive verb, or a participle derived from a transitive verb, it is the object of an action because verbs and their participles express action; but when it follows a preposition it is the object of relation because prepositions show relation.

You will sometimes find the verb placed at some distance from its nominative, in consequence of which the young learner is frequently diffculted in discovering the connexion. This difficulty will frequently be obviated by asking what the noun does: the answer to this question will generally lead you to the verb. You may, at your leisure, consult the beginning of the 7th chapter of Hebrews, and see if you can find the verb to which Melchisedec is nominative; and the beginning of the 3d chapter of Ephesians, and see if you can find the verb to which I Paul, the prisoner of Jesus Christ, is nominative. Exercises of this kind, when you are sufficiently advanced to pursue them to advantage, will

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*Questions.*—What is the use of the possessive case? What is the sign of the possessive case? What is the use of the objective case? How is the objective case of nouns known? When is a noun or pronoun the object of action? When is it the object of relation? How can you discover the verb to which a noun is nominative?

enable you to read with reference to the grammatical construction of the sentences you peruse, which is a desirable attainment.

In interrogative sentences the verb or its auxiliary is usually placed before the nominative case; as, can he read? Does she learn? Were they here, &c.

It is highly improper and ungrammatical to place a noun in the objective case in such a manner as to be the object of a preposition and a verb at the same time. Some inattentive writers have run into this error.

English nouns are declined in the following manner:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom. case,</i>	A mother,	Mothers,
<i>Pos. case,</i>	A mother's,	Mothers',
<i>Obj. case,</i>	A mother,	Mothers.
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom. case,</i>	A man,	Men,
<i>Pos. case,</i>	A man's,	Men's,
<i>Obj. case,</i>	A man,	Men.

## CHAPTER IV.

### SECTION 1. *Of Adjectives, their Nature, and the Degrees of Comparison.*

An Adjective is a word added (*adjected*) to a noun or pronoun to express its quality, kind or colour; as, a *pious* person; a *benevolent* man; a *virtuous* woman; a *red* or *green* apple.

English adjectives are not varied on account of gender, person, or number, for these properties do not belong to them. They are varied only to express the degrees of comparison. They have three degrees of comparison: the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

The positive degree expresses the quality of an ob-

*Questions.*—How is the verb placed in interrogative sentences? Is it proper to make a noun the object of action and of relation at the same time? Give examples of the declension of nouns. Decline the noun man in the singular and plural. What is an adjective? Have English adjectives gender, person, or number? Why are they varied? How many degrees of comparison have they? What is the use of the positive degree?

ject without reference to increase or diminution; as, good, bad, excellent, superior.

The comparative degree increases or lessens the positive in signification; as better, worse, more, excellent.

The superlative degree increases or lessens the positive to the highest or lowest degree; as best, worst, most, excellent, &c.

The simple word or positive becomes the comparative by adding *r* or *er*; and the positive becomes the superlative by adding *st* or *est* to the end of them; as Pos. ripe, Com. riper, Sup. ripest. The adverbs *more* and *most* placed before adjectives, change them into the comparative and superlative degrees; as Pos. wise, Comp. more wise; Sup. most wise. In decreasing the positive we prefix the adverbs *less* and *least*; Pos. wise, Comp. less wise, Sup. least wise.

Some adjectives are irregular in forming the degrees of comparison, as you may observe in the following remarks.

Monosyllables are generally compared by *er* and *est*, and dissyllables, trissyllables, &c. by *more* and *most*; as mild, milder, mildest; frugal, more frugal, most frugal, &c.

Dissyllables ending in *y* as happy, lovely; and in *le* after a mute, as able, ample; or accented on the last syllable, as discreet, polite, easily admit of *er* and *est*; as happier, happiest; politer, politest, &c. Words of more than two syllables seldom admit of *er* and *est*.

In some words the superlative is formed by adding *most* to the end of them; as nethermost, utmost, uppermost, foremost, hindmost, &c.

We have many words which do not form the degrees of comparison according to any general rule, and are generally called irregular comparisons; as good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; ill or evil, worse, worst; much, more, most; many, more, most, &c.

An adjective used without a noun, with an article before it becomes a noun in meaning, and should be parsed as a noun; as Providence rewards *the good*, and punishes *the bad*.

Some nouns assume the nature of adjectives, when placed before other nouns, to show their use, composition, or kind; as *gold* watch, *corn* mill, *meadow* ground, *hemp* land, *corn* field, &c.

Words used in counting are called numeral adjectives, of the cardinal kind; as *one, two, three, four, twenty, fifty, &c.*

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**Questions.**—What is the use of the comparative degree? The superlative? How are the comparative and superlative degrees formed? How are adjectives compared in decreasing? How are monosyllables generally compared? How are dissyllables compared? Repeat some dissyllables that admit of *er* and *est*. Compare some adjectives that are irregular in forming comparison. When should an adjective be parsed as a noun? When does a noun become an adjective? What do you call words used in counting?

Words used in numbering are called numeral adjectives of the ordinal kind; as, *first, second, third, twentieth, &c.*

All numeral adjectives of the cardinal kind, except the first, must agree with plural nouns; as, *two men; twenty houses; one thousand bricks, &c.*

All numeral adjectives of the ordinal kind, must agree with singular nouns; as, *the second man; the twentieth house; the thousandth brick.*

*Ish* when added to adjectives expresses a degree of quality below the positive; as, *black, blackish; salt, saltish.* *Very, exceedingly, eminently, &c.* when prefixed to adjectives, express a considerable degree of quality, which by some is called the superlative of eminence, to distinguish it from the superlative formed by comparison.

## CHAPTER V.

### SECTION I. *Of Pronouns in General, and Personal Pronouns with their Appendages.*

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid repeating the same word too frequently; as, *the man is happy, he is benevolent, he is useful.* Pronouns are of three kinds, Personal, Adjective, and Relative.

There are five personal pronouns; *I, thou, he, she, it,* with their plurals, *we, ye or you, they.*

They are called personal pronouns because they have a different form to denote each person of the nouns for which they stand. Adjective and relative pronouns, have no variety of form for this purpose.

Personal pronouns are varied on account of gender, person, number, and case. Hence we say gen-

*Questions.*—What do you call words used in numbering? How do cardinal adjectives agree with nouns? How do ordinal? What is said of *ish*? How is the superlative of eminence formed? What is a pronoun? How many kinds of pronouns? How many personal pronouns? Why are they called personal pronouns? Have adjective and relative pronouns any variety of form on account of person? Why are personal pronouns varied?



der person, number, and case, *belong* to personal pronouns.

Gender has respect to the third person singular of the pronouns *he, she, it*. *He* is masculine, *she* is feminine, and it has no gender: Therefore, in referring these pronouns to nouns, or using them in place of nouns, *he* personates the male, *she* the female, and *it* the noun of no sex.

The *first* and *second* persons singular, and the three persons plural, have no variation on account of sex.

Pronouns like nouns have two numbers, the singular and plural; as, singular, *I, thou, he, she, it*; Plural, *we, ye or you, they*. They have three persons in each number.

*I* is the first person, *thou* is the second person, and *he, she, it*, is the third person singular.

*We* is the first person, *ye or you* is the second person, and *they* is the third person, plural.

This account of the persons and numbers of the pronouns should be well understood, if you wish to be able to speak and write correctly; for the correctness of language depends very much on the proper application of the pronoun to its noun. The form of the verb is also determined by the person and number of the pronoun, as you will observe when you study its conjugation.

As so much depends upon this part of speech, you will not be displeased with the earnestness of my solicitation, that you will drive sleep from your eyes, and slumber from your eyelids; as well as indolence from your minds, and levity from your thoughts, until you fully comprehend this subject.

Pronouns have three cases, the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective. In the following declensions, you will perceive that each of the pronouns

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**Questions.**—To which of them has gender respect? Which of the personal pronouns have no variation to denote gender? How many numbers have pronouns? How many persons have they? Speak them in the three persons singular. Speak the plural of pronouns in their persons. On what does the correctness of language very much depend? How many cases have pronouns? What is the principal thing to be noticed in learning to decline pronouns?

except *it*, has a peculiar form for each case; and, in learning to decline them, the principal thing to be noticed and remembered, is the form of the pronoun in each case.

Personal pronouns are thus declined.

<i>Person.</i>	<i>Case.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
First,	<i>Nom.</i>	I,	We,
	<i>Pos.</i>	My or mine,	Our or ours,
	<i>Obj.</i>	Me.	Us.
Second,	<i>Nom.</i>	Thou,	Ye or you,
	<i>Pos.</i>	Thy or thine,	Your or yours.
	<i>Obj.</i>	Thee.	You.
Mas. third,	<i>Nom.</i>	He,	They,
	<i>Pos.</i>	His,	Their or theirs,
	<i>Obj.</i>	Him.	Them.
Fem. third,	<i>Nom.</i>	She,	They,
	<i>Pos.</i>	Her or hers,	Their or theirs,
	<i>Obj.</i>	Her.	Them.
3d no gend.	<i>Nom.</i>	It	They,
	<i>Pos.</i>	Its,	Their or theirs,
	<i>Obj.</i>	It.	Them.

You cannot be too particular in committing the foregoing declensions to memory. It will essentially aid you in understanding, analyzing, and composing sentences.

## SECTION 2. *Of Adjective Pronouns.*

Adjective pronouns are words which sometimes stand for nouns, and are sometimes joined to nouns. When they stand for nouns they are pronouns; and when joined to nouns they are adjectives: Hence the name *adjective pronoun*.

Adjective pronouns are divided into four sorts; the Possessive, the Distributive, the Demonstrative, and the Indefinite.

*Questions.*—Decline all the personal pronouns. Speak each one in the objective case. In the possessive case. What are adjective pronouns? Why have they the name adjective pronouns? How many sorts of adjective pronouns?

1. The possessive are those which denote possession or property. There are seven of them, viz: *my, thy, his, her, our, your, their*. *Mine*, and *thine* instead of *my* and *thy*, were formerly used before words beginning with a vowel, or a silent *h*; as, Blot out all *mine* iniquities.

I have given the foregoing words under the appellation of possessive adjective pronouns, in accordance with Mr. Murray's opinion, and that of many eminent writers on grammar; but in opposition to my views of the subject. My opinion is, that they are, in reality, personal pronouns.

According to the definition of the pronoun, any word that takes place of a noun is a pronoun.

Let us try these words by this rule. I met Eliza, and returned *her* book. Whose book? Eliza's book. *Her* then personates Eliza, and is consequently a pronoun. John has learned *his* lesson. Whose lesson? John's lesson. *His* then personates John's, and should be parsed as a pronoun. From this consideration, it appears correct to consider the words *my, thy, his, her, our, your, their*, and *its*, personal pronouns in the possessive case; and to govern them according to rule X.

The words *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs*, when used apart from their nouns, appear to perform a double office, or to have the meaning of two words. Thus in the expressions, this book is *mine*, those books are *thine*, and that one is *his*; the words *mine, thine*, and *his*, are respectively equivalent to my book, thy books, and his books, and should be parsed as two words. Probably some persons who have been in the habit of parsing these words according to old established custom, without much reflection on their meaning, will be like the man with the rock in his sack to balance his grain, think the old way is better; but to me it appears very awkward to say, that *mine* is a personal pronoun in the possessive case, put in the nominative case after the verb to be.

The word *own*, is frequently joined to the possessive pronouns, to give force to the declaration of possession; as, Paul lived two years in his *own* hired house: i. e. a house not hired by others.

When *self* is added to personal pronouns in the first and second persons, it must be joined to the possessive form: as, myself, thyself, ourselves, yourselves; but when this word is added to pronouns of the third person, it must be joined to the objective form: as, himself, herself, itself, themselves. In a sentence like this, He did this himself, some authors

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*Questions.*—What are possessive adjective pronouns? How many of them? Why is it thought not proper to call them possessive adjective pronouns? What should the words *my, thy, his, her, our, your, their* be called? How should they be governed? How should the words *mine, thine, his, ours, yours, theirs* be parsed? Why is the word *own* added to possessive pronouns? To what form of the pronoun in the first and second persons, should *self* be attached? To what form should it be attached in the third person?

are of opinion that *himself* is in the nominative case in apposition with *he*; but, to me this appears erroneous. The sentence seems to mean, he did this by himself, that is, he did not employ another to do it.

2. The distributive are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number, as taken separately. They are *each*, *every*, *either*, and sometimes *neither*; as, *each* of the boys is industrious; *every* man must account for himself; I have not seen *either* of them; *neither* of my friends was there.

*Each* relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies every one of the number taken separately.

*Every* relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them all taken separately. This pronoun was formerly used apart from its noun, but it is now annexed to it, except in legal composition; as in the phrase all and *every* of them, &c.

*Either* refers to two things taken separately, and signifies the one or the other. To say *either* of the three is improper, it should be any of the three.

*Neither* implies not either, that is not the one nor the other. *Neither* should not be applied to more than two.

*Either* and *neither* are frequently used as disjunctive conjunctions. *Either* corresponds with *or*, and *neither* with *nor*. See Note 9, Rule XIX.

3. The demonstrative are *this*, *that*, with their plurals, *these*, *those*, and *former* and *latter*. These words precisely point out the subjects to which they refer; as, *this* is true charity, *that* is only its image.

*This* and *these* refer to the nearest person or thing, and to that which was last mentioned. *That* and *those* refer to the most distant, or the first mentioned persons or things; as, *this* man is more intelligent than *that*, *these* goods are superior to *those*; both *wealth* and *poverty* are temptations, *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontent.

4. The indefinite are those which express their subjects in an indefinite or general manner. They are *some*, *other*, *any*, *one*, *all*, *such*, *both*, *some*, *another*, *many*,

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**Questions.**—What are distributive adjective pronouns? Repeat them. To what does *each* relate? To what does *every* relate? To what does *either* refer? What does *neither* imply? Which of these words are used as conjunctions? With what do they correspond? What words are called demonstrative adjective pronouns? How are they used? To what do *this* and *these* refer? To what do *that* and *those* refer? Give the examples. Which are the indefinite adjective pronouns? What is their use?

*nonc.* Of these pronouns *one* and *other* are varied. *One* admits of a plural and a possessive form. *Other* is also used in both numbers, and is thus declined.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Other.</i>	<i>Others,</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>One,</i>	<i>Ones,</i>
<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Other's,</i>	<i>Others',</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Ones,</i>	<i>Ones'</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Other,</i>	<i>Others.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>One,</i>	<i>Ones.</i>

When any of these words called adjective pronouns, stand for nouns, or represent them, they are not adjective pronouns, but pronouns of the distributive, demonstrative, or indefinite kind; as, he pleases *some*, but he disgusts *others*.

"By *grace* are ye saved through faith, and *that* not of yourselves; it is the gift of God." The word *that* (or rather as it should be rendered *this*) is not a relative pronoun, as some learned divines contend; for it cannot be changed into *who* or which without destroying the sense. But it is a pronoun personating the foregoing member of the sentence. By *grace* are ye saved through faith, and *all* is the gift of God.

That the foregoing classification of pronouns is unexceptionable is not contended; for it would probably be impossible so to class them that an ingenious cynical critic could find no fault, either real or imaginary with the arrangement. To such it were in vain to apologize; and were it remarked to them, that it is easier to find faults than mend them, they would not refrain, nor let us alone.

### SECTION 3. *Of Relative Pronouns.*

Learner, you have now arrived at the most difficult part of grammatical science. Relative pronouns are very difficult of comprehension, and it will require all your industry, and mental energy to gain a critical knowledge of their various applications in language. But with attentive study and close thinking you will be able to surmount this rugged eminence.

Relative Pronouns are words that relate to a preceding word or sentence for their antecedents. They are *who*, *which*, and *that*. Antecedent means going before; therefore, the words which precede the relatives, and to which they relate are called antecedents;

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*Questions.*—Which of these words are varied? When any of these words stand for nouns what are they called? Is the classification of pronouns considered unexceptionable? What are relative pronouns? Repeat them. What does antecedent mean?

as; the man is happy *who* lives virtuously; the bird *which* sung so sweetly has flown; this is the tree which produces no fruit.

Who is applied to persons, which to things, and to the brutal tribes; that, as a relative, applies both to persons and things; as, he *that* acts wisely deserves praise; modesty is a quality *that* highly adorns a woman.

That is used as two kinds of a pronoun, and a conjunction, depending on the office it performs in the sentence. When *that* can be changed for *who* or *which*, without impairing the sense, it is a relative pronoun; as, they *that* (*who*) reprove us may be our best friends; from every thing *that* (*which*) you see derive instruction. When *that* points out and restricts the meaning of a noun expressed or implied, it is a demonstrative adjective pronoun; that book is John's, *that* slate is Eliza's; that belongs to me, meaning that book, slate, or some other thing. When *that* is used to connect the members of a sentence, marking a consequence, it is a conjunction; as, he reproved thee *that* thou mayest be wise; take care *that* every day be well employed.

The observations on *that* are predicated on the principle that equivalence in meaning constitutes similarity in grammatical construction, and can be supported on no other. If this principle be good when applied to *that* it must also hold good when applied to other words of similar construction. For this, we shall have further use in the progress of this work.

The relative pronouns, though they have no variation on account of number, are referred to antecedents both in the singular and plural.

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*Questions.*—To what is *who* applied? To what is *which* applied? To what is the relative *that* applied? Is *that* used as three parts of speech? Give the examples. On what are the observations on *that* predicated?

## Who is thus declined:

*Nominative.*

Who,

*Possessive.*

Whose,

*Objective.*

Whom.

Annexing the word *ever* or *soever* does not vary the declension of *who*; as, Nom. Whoever, Pos. Whose-ever, Obj. Whomever, &c.

Which and that are indeclinable. Whose is sometimes used as the possessive case of which; and, as it prevents circumlocution, or expresses with one word, what would otherwise require several, it adds to the perspicuity of the sentence; and, when used sparingly forms a pleasing variety in composition; as will be seen in the following examples:

"Is there any other doctrine *whose* followers are punished."

—"And the fruit of that forbidden tree,

*Whose* mortal taste brought death, &c."

Were this licence in the use of *whose* prohibited, these examples would sound harshly: thus, "Is there any other doctrine, the followers of which are punished." The taste of which brought death, &c.

When *ever* or *soever* is annexed to *who*, or *what*, used as compound relatives, it extends the meaning of the pronoun; as, whatever is, is right; whoever takes that oath, is bound to enforce the laws. In the former example *whatever* is equivalent to, *every thing which*; and in the latter, whoever is equivalent to *every man who*, or *every person who*. When the word *ever* is annexed to which it has the force of an indefinite adjective; as, Eliza, take whichever pattern pleases you best; that is, Eliza, take the, or that, pattern among *all* the patterns which pleases you best. It is a mistake to conclude that "*in analysing these words, the word ever*" should be "*entirely excluded from the sentence.*"

Who, which, and what, when used in asking questions, are called interrogative pronouns, or relative pronouns of the interrogative kind; Who is he? What are you doing? Which is the person? When *what* and *which* are joined to nouns in asking questions, they may properly be termed interrogative adjective pronouns; What book do you want? Which road did he take?

What, when it signifies *that which*, or *the thing which*, or *those things which*, is a compound relative pronoun and should be parsed as two words; this is *what (the thing which)* I wanted. From *what* has been said on the subject we may infer, &c. that is, from those things which have been said, &c.

**Questions.**—Decline *who*. Does it vary the declension of *who*, to annex *ever* or *soever* to it? Can *which* and *that* be declined? When *whose* is used as the possessive case of which, what is its effect on language? When *ever* or *soever*, is annexed to *who* or *what*, used as compound relatives, what effect has it? In parsing these words, is it proper to reject *ever*? When *who*, *which*, and *what*, are used in asking questions, what are they called? When *what* and *which* are joined to nouns in asking questions, what are they called?

What, when a compound relative, is frequently nominative to two succeeding verbs; as, whatever is, is right; what is food for one is poison to another. What is never compound when used in asking a question. What is sometimes used as an interjection; as, but what! am I a dog, &c: What! first rob, and then imprison us!

The word whatever is sometimes used emphatically, without having direct reference to any individual word in the sentence, but it rather gives emphasis to the whole declaration; as, no single instance of conduct whatever is sufficient, &c: This may be considered an anomalous use of this word.

## CHAPTER VI.

### OF VERBS.

#### SECTION I. *Of Verbs in General.*

A verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer; as, I am, I rule, I am ruled.

Verbs are of three kinds. Active—as, I rule; passive—as, I am ruled; neuter—as, I am, I sleep, I stand, &c. Verbs are also divided into regular, irregular, and defective.

A verb active expresses the action which is performed or is to be performed by some person or thing. When the action terminates on an object, the active verb is transitive; but when the action does not terminate on an object the verb is intransitive.

The following are examples of some verbs used both transitively and intransitively. Transitively; Richard struck James. Intransitively; Richard struck *at* James. In the first instance the stroke terminated on James, in the second it did not.

Transitive means passing; when the action passes to an object, the verb is transitive; when it does not pass to an object, the verb is intransitive.

A verb passive expresses a passion or suffering, or the receiving of an action; as, Eliza *is loved* by me.

*Questions.*—When is what a compound relative? Does what become nominative to two succeeding verbs? Is what ever used as an interjection? What is a verb? How many kinds of verbs are there? What other division have verbs? What is a verb active? When are active verbs transitive?—When intransitive? What does transitive mean? Give the examples. What is a passive verb?



All passive verbs are formed by joining the perfect participle of an active transitive verb to the neuter verb *be* in all its changes, or forms; as, *I am loved*, *I was loved*, *I have been loved*, *I shall or will be loved*, &c.

Some writers join the perfect participles of intransitive verbs to the verb *be* in the passive form; as, the bird is flown, I am come &c. These are not passive verbs, but compound neuter verbs in the passive voice.

It is improper to use this form of the verb when the nominative is an active agent in the performance of the action. Thus, it is improper to say, the bird *is flown*; *I am come*; he is gone; they should be, the bird has flown; I have come; he has gone; because the respective nominatives *bird*, *I*, and *he* are active in the performance of their respective acts.

When the nominative is not the actor in the accomplishment of the action, this form of the verb is correct; as, the time *is come*; the boy *is grown*, &c.

The perfect participles of intransitive verbs, by the aid of prepositions, frequently help to form compound passive verbs; as, he *was smiled on* by fortune.

A passive verb may, in general, be known by admitting *by* or *with* after it, in construction; he was killed *by* a fall; they were overtaken *by* a storm, he *was struck with* a stick *by* his classmate, &c.

A neuter verb expresses neither action nor passion, but being or a state of being; as, *I am*, *I sleep*, *I sit*.

Neuter means neither; and neuter verb means neither an active, nor a passive one.

Some writers use active intransitive verbs, and sometimes, even neuter verbs in a transitive manner; thus, the boy *flies* the kite; the man ran a race; to *sleep* the sleep of death.

Auxiliary or helping verbs are those words which help to conjugate our principal verbs. Auxiliary signifies a helper, auxiliary verbs are helping verbs.

May, can, must, might, could, would, should, and shall, are always auxiliaries. Do, be, have, and will, may be used both as auxiliaries and

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**Questions.**—How are all passive verbs formed? Are intransitive participles used in the passive form? When is it improper to use the participle of an intransitive verb in the passive form? When is it proper so to use them? What are verbs of this kind called? How are compound passive verbs formed? Give the example. How may a passive verb be known? What is a neuter verb? Are intransitive and neuter verbs ever used as transitive? What are auxiliary verbs? Which are always auxiliaries? Which are sometimes principal verbs? What does auxiliary mean?

principal verbs. *Have*, frequently becomes an auxiliary to itself; as, I have had, I had had, &c.

*Be*, when it helps to form a passive verb, or a compound neuter verb in the passive voice, is an auxiliary; in every other situation it is a principal verb.

All verbs, from which perfect participles may be derived, may be used as principal verbs.

Ought and quoth are considered principal verbs, though they have no perfect participles.

Number, Person, Mode, and Tense, belong to verbs.

### SECTION 2. *Of Number and Person of Verbs.*

Number and person, when applied to verbs, mean the difference in the termination of the verb to agree with its nominative case; as, I learn, thou learnest, he learns or learneth, &c.

Verbs have two numbers, singular and plural; and they have three persons in each number, as will be seen in the following conjugation of the verb *to learn*, in the present tense of the indicative mode.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>First Person,</i>	I learn,	We learn,
<i>Second Person,</i>	Thou learnest,	Ye or you learn,
<i>Third Person,</i>	He learns.	They learn.

You should notice that the first form of the verb is the form for the first person singular, and the three persons plural. Notice also, that all verbs in the second person singular must end in *st*, and in the third person singular all verbs must end in *s* or *th*, in the present tense. The verb *be* forms a partial exception to the foregoing remark, as you will see by attending to the conjugation of that verb.

### SECTION 3. *Of Modes and Participles.*

The mode of verbs consists in the arrangement and combination of the verb with auxiliaries, and other

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**Questions.**—Is *have* ever used as auxiliary to itself? When is the verb *be* an auxiliary? When a principal verb? What verbs may be used as principal verbs? What belong to verbs? What do number and person mean, when applied to verbs? How many numbers have verbs? How many persons have they? What is the first thing to be noticed in the form of the verb? What the second? What verb forms a partial exception to the remarks on the form of verbs? What is made?

parts of speech, showing the different manners of expressing being, action, or passion.

This definition of mode will appear correct from a close attention to the following directions and examples:

1st. Arrange the verb with a noun or pronoun in the nominative case and you will have the indicative mode; as, I learn, we learn.

2d. Prefix a conjunction expressive of doubt, to the foregoing example, and you will have the subjunctive mode; as, if I learn, if we learn, &c.

3d. Place the verb by itself and you will have the imperative mode; as, learn, study, think, &c.

4th. Combine the verb with the auxiliaries may, can, must, might, could, would, should, and you will have the potential mode; as, I may, can, must, might, could, would, or should learn, &c.

5th. Place *to* before a verb, and it renders it infinitive mode; as, to learn, to study, to think, &c.

Verbs have five modes: the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Imperative, the Potential, and Infinitive.

The indicative mode simply declares a thing to be, or not to be; to do, or not to do; to suffer, or not to suffer, in a direct manner; or it asks a question; as, does he learn? do they study? will you improve?

The subjunctive mode implies doubt, uncertainty, or contingency. This doubt, &c. is marked by the preceding conjunction, which is the sign of this mode; as, if I learn; unless he study, &c.

The conjunctions *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, and *lest*, are generally followed by the subjunctive mode.

Milton makes the word *ere* govern the subjunctive mode; as, *ere fresh morning streak* the east, &c.

For farther instruction on this mode see 19th rule of Syntax and notes, and the conjugation of the verb *learn*.

The imperative mode is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, and permitting; as, depart; study your lesson; let us go.

[See conjugation of the verb *learn*, imperative mode.]

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**Questions.**—How is the indicative mode formed? How is the subjunctive? How is the imperative verb used? How is the potential mode formed? How is the infinitive? How many modes have verbs? What is the use of the indicative? What is the use of the subjunctive? What conjunctions require the subjunctive mode after them? What word does Milton place the subjunctive mode after? What rule of Syntax treats of the subjunctive mode? What is the use of the imperative mode?

The Potential mode implies possibility, liberty, power, will, or obligation; as, it may rain, I can walk, you should learn.

As the principal verb cannot express those things implied by the Potential mode, it has auxiliaries in all its tenses, without which it cannot be formed. The auxiliaries may, can, must, might, could, would, and should, are the auxiliaries of this mode.

The infinitive mode expresses a thing in a general and unlimited manner, having no nominative case, consequently neither number nor person; as, to act, to speak, to learn.

Infinitive means unlimited, and this name is given to this mode because it has no variation on account of number and person.

Has the Imperative any variation more than the Infinitive? I think it has not.

The Participle is a certain form of the verb, which derives its name from its sometimes performing the office of a verb, and sometimes of an adjective.

That a word cannot be a verb and adjective at the same time, will appear obvious to any person who thinks for a moment on the nature of these two parts of speech, and discerns their distinction. If "*no such thing as an adjective pronoun can exist, because pronouns and adjectives are in their nature distinct,*" much less can any word partake of the nature of a verb and adjective, at the same time, and in the same circumstances; for these two parts of speech have less affinity than the pronoun and adjective.

There are three Participles: the present, the perfect, and the compound perfect; as, learning, learned, having learned. The present participle is formed by adding *ing* to the verb; as, learning, reading, &c. It represents an action or event as progressing, that is, commenced and not finished; as, I am writing, Susan is studying, Mary is playing.

Some words ending in *ing* are not participles, because they are not derived from verbs. Such are evening, morning, hiring, nursing, &c.

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**Questions.**—What is the use of the potential mode? Why has the potential auxiliaries in all its tenses? What is the use of the infinitive mode? What does infinitive mean? What is a participle? Can a word be a verb and adjective at the same time? How many participles are there? How is the present participle formed? What does the present participle represent? Are all words that end in *ing* present participles?

The perfect participle denotes an action as completed, it also denotes past time. The perfect participle of regular verbs corresponds with the imperfect tense: both ending in *ed*; as, ruled, finished, learned, &c.

The compound perfect participle is formed by placing the present participle of the auxiliary verb *have*, before the perfect participle of another verb; as, having ruled, having finished, having learned. This participle, in its relation to time, coincides with the pluperfect tense.

Participles are frequently used as nouns; as, a good understanding, excellent writing. This remark is in coincidence with the statements of popular grammarians; but the truth appears to be that the *noun*, and *present* participle derived from many of our verbs, have the same form, and though ending in *ing*, they are no more of the nature of participles than any other noun derived from a verb. Thus from the verb to *end*, comes the participle ending, and the noun ending; from the verb *write*, comes the participle writing, and the noun writing, &c. It is as improper to call these participial nouns, as it would be to call *lover* a participial noun, because it is derived from the verb to *love*. Participles are frequently preceded by nouns and pronouns in the possessive case; as, the general's having failed in this enterprise, occasioned his disgrace.

### SECTION 5. *Of the Tenses.*

TENSE means time. Verbs have six tenses, the present, the imperfect, the perfect, the pluperfect, and the first and second future tenses.

The present tense denotes present time; or the present tense represents an action or event as passing at the time in which it is mentioned; as, I study, I learn, &c.

This tense is used in speaking of actions continued with occasional intermission; as, he rides every week, &c.

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**Questions.**—What does the perfect participle denote? How are perfect participles of regular verbs formed? With what do they correspond? What is the compound perfect participle? What time does it represent? Are participles ever used as nouns? Are participles ever preceded by the possessive case? What does tense mean? How many tenses have verbs? What does the present tense denote?

The imperfect tense denotes past time indefinitely; or the imperfect tense represents an action or event either as past and finished, or as remaining unfinished at a certain time past; as, I *loved* her for her modesty and virtue. They *were* travelling post when he *met* them.

The perfect tense refers to past time, and includes the present; as, I *have* finished my letter, I *have* seen the person that was recommended to me.

*Here* is the auxiliary of the perfect tense; and it must always be followed by the perfect participle of the verb, and not by the imperfect tense; as, I *have written*, not *have wrote*.

The perfect and imperfect tenses both denote past time; but the perfect denotes it in such a manner as to show that some portion of the time still remains. This is done by placing an auxiliary of present time before the past participle: whereas the imperfect tense denotes the thing or action past, in such a manner that no portion of the time, in which it transpired, remains to pass away. If we speak of the present day, week, month, year, or century, we use the *perfect tense*, because some portions of those periods yet remain with us; but when we speak of the *past* day, week, month, year, or century, we use the *imperfect tense*; because those portions of time are completely past.

The pluperfect tense represents an action or event, not only as past, but also as prior to, or before, some other past action or event; as, I *had* finished my letter before he came.

*Had* is the auxiliary of the pluperfect tense of the indicative and subjunctive modes; and it also must be followed by the perfect participle of the verb, and not the imperfect tense; I *had written*, I *had spoken*, not *had wrote*, &c.

The first future tense denotes future time indefinite; or the first future tense denotes a future action or event, but does not precisely mark the time of its transpiring;

*Questions.*—What is the use of the imperfect tense? What, of the perfect? What is the difference between the perfect and imperfect tenses, in their relation to past time? In speaking of the present day, week, month, &c. what tense should be used? In speaking of the past week, month, &c. what tense should be used? What is the auxiliary of the perfect tense? What form of the verb follows it? What does the pluperfect tense denote? What is the auxiliary of the pluperfect tense? What form of the verb must follow it?

as, the sun will rise and set from day to day, I shall go to him, but he will not return to me.

The second future tense, refers to an action, to be fully accomplished at, or before some other future action denoted in the sentence; as, I shall have dined at one o'clock, I shall have finished my letter when the post arrives.

Shall have, in the first persons singular and plural, and wilt and will have, in the second and third persons, followed by the perfect participle, form the second future tense of the indicative mode.

Shall or will, (*without have*,) followed by the first form or present tense of the verb, forms the first future tense in the indicative and subjunctive modes.

In the *subjunctive* second future tense, the auxiliary *will* is not used, as you may see in the conjugation of the verb *learn*, &c.

If you notice particularly the foregoing observations on the tenses, the auxiliaries, and the form of the verb that *must* follow the auxiliary, to render the language correct, you will be prepared to attend with advantage to the conjugation of verbs in the different modes. It is too much the custom to pass over this portion of grammar in a superficial manner. I hope this will not be the case with you. Nothing appertaining to the science of language, can be of more importance than a critical knowledge of every thing that appertains to verbs, and, especially of the modes and tenses, and of their construction. In consequence of the importance of this matter, to your progress, you will find many of the observations on verbs, &c. repeated, both in the conjugations of the verbs, and in the remarks under the rules of Syntax, that they may make an indelible impression on your memory.

A great portion of the errors committed in speaking and writing, originate in a want of a *thorough* knowledge of the use of the verb in the modes, tenses, persons, and numbers; too much attention cannot, therefore, be paid to this part of your studies.

That the division of the modes, tenses, &c. pursued in this treatise, is free from a liability to be controverted, is not contended, nor would it be practicable so to arrange them, as to meet the views of all the *criticks* on the science.

But it is believed that the mode here adopted, possesses as much accuracy as any hitherto published, and a sufficiency to answer all practical purposes, which is the principal design.

It is thought unnecessary to present a separate conjugation of the auxiliary verbs. Their principal use being to aid in the conjugation of the principal verbs, you will be able to acquire a knowledge of their forms

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*Questions.*—What is the use of the first future tense? What are its auxiliaries? What form of the verb follows these auxiliaries? To what does the second future tense refer? What are the auxiliaries of the second future tense of the indicative mode? What of the subjunctive?

and application, by attending to the manner in which they are applied in that conjugation.

I will now call your attention to the conjugation of the regular, active, transitive verb *to learn*, through all the modes and tenses; and show you all the different ways in which it can be used in the different tenses. I selected the verb *learn*, because your business in school is, or ought to be, *to learn*; and my earnest desire is, that while you *learn* to conjugate this verb through all the modes and tenses, the sound of the *verb* may hourly increase your thirst for useful knowledge, and your diligence in its pursuit. There is considerable difference in different persons with regard to their advancement in learning. Some appear to get forward without much exertion, while others must labor intensely to obtain the same advancement. But this should be no discouragement to the latter, for such, by perseverance, often arrive at the highest eminence in scientific knowledge, while the former are left in the vale below.

### SECTION 6. *Of the Conjugation of Verbs.*

Verbs active and neuter are called regular when they form the imperfect tense of the indicative mode, and their perfect participles, by adding *ed* to the verb, or *d* only, when the verb ends in *e*; as,

<i>Present tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect tense.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
I favor,	I favored,	Favored.
I learn,	I learned,	Learned.
I live,	I lived,	Lived.

The conjugation of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several numbers, persons, modes, and tenses. The conjugation of an active verb is called the active voice; and that of the passive verb, the passive voice. Neuter verbs are conjugated in the active voice.

The regular active verb, *to learn*, is conjugated in the following manner.

#### TO LEARN—INDICATIVE MODE.

##### Present Tense.

##### *Declarative intransitive conjugation.*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I learn,	1. We learn,
2. Thou learnest,	2. Ye or you learn.
3. He learns or learneth,	3. They learn.



The definite conjugation is produced by joining the present participles to the verb *to be*, in the following manner.

*Singular.*

1. I am learning,
2. Thou art learning,
3. He, she, it is learning.

*Plural.*

1. We are learning,
2. Ye or you are learning,
3. They are learning.

The auxiliary *do*, is used in the present tense of the indicative mode, for three purposes. 1st. For emphasis. 2d. For interrogation. 3d. For negation. The following are the modes of its conjugations.

*1st. Emphatic Conjugation.**Singular.*

1. I do learn,
2. Thou dost learn,
3. He doth or does learn.

*Plural.*

1. We do learn,
2. Ye or you do learn,
3. They do learn.

*2d. Interrogative Conjugation.**Singular.*

1. Do I learn?
2. Dost thou learn?
3. Does he learn?

*Plural.*

1. Do we learn?
2. Do ye or you learn?
3. Do they learn?

*3d. The Negative Conjugation.**Singular.*

1. I do not learn,
2. Thou dost not learn,
3. He doth or does not learn.

*Plural.*

1. We do not learn,
2. Ye or you do not learn,
3. They do not learn.

The following is the transitive conjugation of the verb *to learn*, Indicative mode, present tense.

*Singular.*

1. I learn *my* lesson,
2. Thou learnest *thy* lesson,
3. He learns *his* lesson.

*Plural.*

1. We learn *our* lessons,
2. Ye or you learn *your* lessons,
3. They learn *their* lessons.

In the foregoing conjugations, the verb is displayed in all the manners in which it can be used in the present tense, of the indicative mode, excepting that it may be made transitive, in all the conjugations. Will you do yourself the justice to pay particular attention to the subject? You will thus prepare yourself to conjugate the verb through the remaining tenses with advantage.

*Imperfect Tense.**Declrative Intransitive Conjugation.**Singular.*

1. I learned,
2. Thou learnedst,
3. He learned.

*Plural.*

1. We learned,
2. Ye or you learned,
3. They learned.

*Definite Conjugation.**Singular.*

1. I was learning,
2. Thou wast learning,
3. He was learning.

*Plural.*

1. We were learning,
2. Ye or you were learning,
3. They were learning.

*Emphatic Conjugation.*

- |                      |                         |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>     | <i>Plural.</i>          |
| 1. I did learn,      | 1. We did learn,        |
| 2. Thou didst learn, | 2. Ye or you did learn, |
| 3. He did learn.     | 3. They did learn.      |

*Interrogative Conjugation.*

- |                      |                         |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>     | <i>Plural.</i>          |
| 1. Did I learn?      | 1. Did we learn?        |
| 2. Didst thou learn? | 2. Did ye or you learn? |
| 3. Did he learn?     | 3. Did they learn?      |

*Negative Conjugation.*

- |                          |                             |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>         | <i>Plural.</i>              |
| 1. I did not learn,      | 1. We did not learn,        |
| 2. Thou didst not learn, | 2. Ye or you did not learn, |
| 3. He did not learn.     | 3. They did not learn.      |

*Transitive Conjugation.*

- |                                      |   |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| <i>Singular.</i>                     | <i>Plural.</i>                            |
| 1. I learned <i>my</i> lesson,       | 1. We learned <i>our</i> lessons,         |
| 2. Thou learnedst <i>thy</i> lesson, | 2. Ye or you learned <i>your</i> lessons, |
| 3. He learned <i>his</i> lesson.     | 3. They learned <i>their</i> lesson.      |

**Perfect Tense.**

Do you recollect that *have* is the auxiliary of the perfect tense, and that it must be followed by a perfect participle?

*Declarative Intransitive Conjugation.*

- |                            |                            |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>           | <i>Plural.</i>             |
| 1. I have learned,         | 1. We have learned,        |
| 2. Thou hast learned,      | 2. Ye or you have learned, |
| 3. He hath or has learned. | 3. They have learned.      |

*Definite Conjugation.*

- |                                  |                                  |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>                 | <i>Plural.</i>                   |
| 1. I have been learning,         | 1. We have been learning,        |
| 2. Thou hast been learning,      | 2. Ye or you have been learning, |
| 3. He hath or has been learning. | 3. They have been learning.      |

*Interrogative Conjugation.*

- |                       |                            |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>      | <i>Plural.</i>             |
| 1. Have I learned?    | 1. Have we learned?        |
| 2. Hast thou learned? | 2. Have ye or you learned? |
| 3. Has he learned?    | 3. Have they learned?      |

*Negative Conjugation.*

- |                           |                                |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>          | <i>Plural.</i>                 |
| 1. I have not learned,    | 1. We have not learned,        |
| 2. Thou hast not learned, | 2. Ye or you have not learned, |
| 3. He has not learned.    | 3. They have not learned.      |

*Transitive Conjugation.**Singular.**Plural.*

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. I have learned <i>my</i> lesson,     | 1. We have learned <i>our</i> lessons,         |
| 2. Thou hast learned <i>thy</i> lesson, | 2. Ye or you have learned <i>your</i> lessons, |
| 3. He has learned <i>his</i> lesson.    | 3. They have learned <i>their</i> lessons.     |

**Pluperfect Tense.**

Had is the auxiliary of this tense, followed by the perfect participle.

*Declarative Intransitive Conjugation.**Singular.**Plural.*

- |                        |                           |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I had learned,      | 1. We had learned,        |
| 2. Thou hadst learned, | 2. Ye or you had learned, |
| 3. He had learned.     | 3. They had learned.      |

*Negative Conjugation.**Singular.**Plural.*

- |                            |                               |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I had not learned,      | 1. We had not learned,        |
| 2. Thou hadst not learned, | 2. Ye or you had not learned, |
| 3. He had not learned.     | 3. They had not learned.      |

*Definite Conjugation.**Singular.**Plural.*

- |                              |                                 |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I had been learning,      | 1. We had been learning,        |
| 2. Thou hadst been learning, | 2. Ye or you had been learning, |
| 3. He had been learning.     | 3. They had been learning.      |

*Transitive Conjugation.**Singular.**Plural.*

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. I had learned <i>my</i> lesson,       | 1. We had learned <i>our</i> lessons,         |
| 2. Thou hadst learned <i>thy</i> lesson, | 2. Ye or you had learned <i>your</i> lessons, |
| 2. He had learned <i>his</i> lesson.     | 3. They had learned <i>their</i> lessons.     |

When the pluperfect tense has the interrogative arrangement, it is only by the tone of the voice, when spoken, or by the mark which terminates the sentence, when written, that we can determine whether a question is asked in the indicative mode, or whether it is the conjunctive form of the verb in the subjunctive mode; thus in the sentence, Had he been there he would have conquered: the verb is in the subjunctive mode, the conjunction being understood. But in the following, Had he been there? We discern by the mark which closes the sentence, that a question is asked, and in reading it, the tone of the voice denotes interrogation.

**First Future Tense.**

Shall and will are the auxiliaries of this tense, followed by the first form of the verb.

*Declarative Intransitive Conjugation.**Singular.**Plural.*

- |                              |                                   |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will learn,    | 1. We shall or will learn,        |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt learn, | 2. Ye or you shall or will learn, |
| 3. He shall or will learn.   | 3. They shall or will learn.      |

Having continued the definite, negative, and transitive conjugations through the present and three past tenses, I think it unnecessary to continue them through the future tenses. Were I to do so, nothing would

be left to occupy your judgment, and prove your knowledge and industry. It will be a good exercise of your mind to supply my lack of service in this respect, and conjugate the verb in these tenses, in a manner similar to the plan pursued in the perfect and pluperfect tenses. You may, if you please, continue the negative and transitive conjugations through all the modes and tenses.

### Second Future Tense.

*Shall have*, in the first persons singular and plural, and *will*, and *will have*, in the second and third persons, followed by the perfect participle of the verb, form the second future tense of the indicative mode. In the second future tense of the subjunctive, *shall have* is used throughout.

#### *Declarative Intransitive Conjugation.*

##### *Singular.*

1. I shall have learned,
2. Thou wilt have learned,
3. He will have learned,

##### *Plural.*

1. We shall have learned.
2. Ye or you will have learned.
3. They will have learned.

The various ways of using the verb learn, in the indicative mode, have now been given; and if you become well skilled in the conjugation of this mode, you will find no difficulty in any of the remaining ones; for though they are quite different in their significations, yet they are very similar in conjugation. The subjunctive in particular, has a great similarity in this respect. For this reason it is put next in order.

The difference of conjugating the indicative and subjunctive modes consists in these three things, viz.: 1st. When doubt and future time are both denoted, the present tense has no personal variation. 2d. It is always preceded by a conjunction, expressed or understood. 3d. The auxiliary *will*, is not used in the second future tense. These remarks must be understood of the active verb. The verb *to be*, in this mode, forms a remarkable variation from all other verbs, as you will notice by paying attention to the conjugation of that verb.

The active verb has the same form in the present, of the subjunctive, that it has in the present of the indicative, when future time is not referred to. This is owing to an auxiliary's being understood when future time is denoted, and not understood when present time is represented.

### SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

#### Present Tense—*Conjunctive form.*

##### *Singular.*

1. If I learn,
2. If thou learn,
3. If he learn.

##### *Plural.*

1. If we learn,
2. If ye or you learn,
3. If they learn.

This form or use of the verb is proper when doubt and future time are both implied: but when doubt is implied, without reference to future time, the verb takes

#### *The Indicative form; as,*

##### *Singular.*

1. If I learn,
2. If thou learnest,
3. If he learns or learneth,

##### *Plural.*

1. If we learn,
2. If ye or you learn,
3. If they learn,

This is called the indicative form of the subjunctive mode. By prefixing a conjunction expressive of doubt, to the different forms of the imperfect, perfect, pluperfect, and first future tenses of the indicative, you will have the same tenses in the subjunctive mode; except the definite conjugation in the imperfect tense. The verb *be* is used in a different form in the subjunctive, as you may see by referring to the conjugation of that verb.

This difference gives the definite conjugation the following form :

### Imperfect Tense.

#### Definite Conjugation.

##### Singular.

1. If I were learning,
2. If thou wert learning,
3. If he were learning.

##### Plural.

1. If we were learning,
2. If ye or you were learning,
3. If they were learning.

I will now put down the conjugation of the second future tense, that, by comparing it with that tense of the indicative, you may see the difference.

### Second Future Tense.

##### Singular.

1. If I shall have learned,
2. If thou shalt have learned,
3. If he shall have learned.

##### Plural.

1. If we shall have learned,
2. If ye or you shall have learned,
3. If they shall have learned.

### IMPERATIVE MODE.

In putting down the verb in this mode, I shall, in the first place, put it down according to the practice of Lowth, followed by Mr. Murray; and then endeavor to prove, not by dogmatical assertions, but, by what I conceive to be, fair and cogent arguments, that this mode, like the infinitive, has neither number, person, nor a nominative case. Should my arguments not appear conclusive to you, you will have ought to do but to reject them as erroneous, and follow the practice of my predecessors.

### IMPERATIVE MODE.

#### Present Tense.

##### Singular.

1. Let me learn,
2. Learn thou or do thou learn,
3. Let him learn.

##### Plural.

1. Let us learn,
2. Learn ye or you or do ye or you learn,
3. Let them learn.

Mr. Murray says, "The imperative mode is not strictly entitled to three persons." "The command is always addressed to the second person, not to the first or third. For when we say, Let me learn. Let him or let them learn: the meaning and construction are, do thou, or do ye or you let me, him, or them learn." "In Philosophical strictness, both number and person might be entirely excluded from all verbs." "They are, in fact, the properties of nouns, not a part of the essence of the verb."

It appears from the foregoing remarks, that our author, in giving three persons to the imperative mode, did it as "*an act of humble, passive*

*obedience to his predecessors*, and not from a conviction of its propriety.

If you will bear with me, and attentively peruse the following remarks, I will endeavor to show you why, in my opinion, this mode is not entitled to *person, number, or a nominative case*.

The first or leading principle in grammar is, "*The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.*" This agreement consists in the form or ending of the verb. Thus, the first form of the verb is the form to agree with the first person singular, and the three persons plural; as, I learn, we learn, you learn, they learn. The verb *to be*, forms a solitary exception in the English language.

In the second person singular, the verb or auxiliary must end in *st* or *est*; and in the third person singular, the verb must end in *s* or *th*. To this remark, the verb *to be* forms the only exception. These endings constitute all that can be intended by number and person, in their application to verbs.

The remarks of Mr. Murray, already presented, prove that number and person form no part of the essence of verbs, but are attached to them for a secondary purpose.

This purpose is to show the reference or agreement of the verb to, or with its nominative case. Hence it follows of course, that in any mode where the verb has no variety in termination, it has no person or number; but the infinitive and imperative modes have no variety of termination, therefore, in these modes, the verb has no number nor person.

Mr. Kirkham asserts, in the 3rd edition of his grammar, page 88, that, "when the termination of the verb is not varied on account of number and person, it has neither agreement nor disagreement, any more than there is in a preposition or a conjunction." But in the imperative and infinitive modes, the verb has no variation on account of number or person; therefore, in these modes, "*the verb has neither agreement nor disagreement, any more than a preposition or a conjunction.*"

Some, whose opinions are opposed to mine, contend that these arguments equally affect the present tense of the subjunctive mode. But this opinion appears to have its origin in a superficial acquaintance with the nature of that tense. Murray, under his 19th rule of Syntax, has these judicious remarks:

"Almost all the irregularities in the construction of any language, have arisen from the *omission* of some words, which were originally inserted in the sentence, and made it regular; and it is probable that this has generally been the case with respect to the conjunctive form of words now in use, which will appear from the following examples: We shall overtake him though he *run*; that is, though he *should run*. Unless he *act* prudently, he will not accomplish his purpose; that is, unless he *shall act*, &c. If he *succeed* and *obtain* his end, he will not be the happier for it; i. e. If he *shall succeed* and *shall obtain*, or if he *should succeed* and *should obtain*, &c."

From these examples it appears evident, that in the conjunctive form of English verbs, an auxiliary is always understood, and if expressed, it would have the regular personal variations; thus, If I *shall* or *should* learn; If thou *shalt* or *shouldst* learn, &c. This is deemed sufficient to show that the arguments for excluding number and person from the imperative mode, have no bearing on the present tense of the subjunctive.

Rules for the construction of language can only be serviceable in cases where there is danger of erroneous construction; and where no possi-

bility of error exists, rules must be superfluous. But no error in the form of the imperative verb can exist. Consequently, rules for its construction must be superfluous. The error of attaching person and number to the imperative verb, appears to have originated in the error of attaching to it a nominative case. All writers on grammar coincide in making it agree with a pronoun understood for its nominative. Thus in the sentence, 'Thou traitor depart: they would make *thou* and *traitor* in apposition in the nominative case, independent, being both used in a direct address, and depart would be made to agree with *thou* understood; thus, 'Thou traitor depart *thou*. But it appears evident to my mind, that if the former *thou* is put in apposition with traitor, the latter *thou* is equally so, for it personates traitor, and is used in the same manner as the former.

Again: If we command or entreat a person to perform an action, he may not obey, or grant our request, and consequently, the action not being performed, the person addressed does not become an actor or agent to the verb; nor is the person giving the command, the actor or agent, for the action remains unperformed; hence, there can be no nominative case. From all these considerations, I think myself warranted in saying that the imperative verb has no nominative, consequently, neither number nor person.

Should you ask, how would you conjugate the imperative verb? I would answer, in the following manner:

### IMPERATIVE MODE, PRESENT TENSE, LEARN.

Should you ask, how would you parse this verb? I would answer, a verb in the imperative mode, present tense. Some persons may think, as others have said, it is a matter of small moment whether the imperative mode have number and person attached to it or not; such persons would do well to remember, that Mr. Murray has occupied five pages of his grammar, and made twenty-four quotations from different authors, to prove that the word *means* may, with propriety, be used both in the singular and plural number; which is a matter of as *small* magnitude, as to establish a correct method of construing the imperative verb. Should you still be disposed to contend for the ancient analysis, please to turn to the first chapter of Genesis, and, in the thirteen instances in which *let* is there used in the imperative mode, tell me who or what can be made nominative case to it. And should you imitate Doctor Webster in his remarks, and say it has no nominative; then please to inform me why all imperative verbs are not entitled to the same license in construction. Or if you imitate Mr. Murray by making a rule exclusively for this verb, I would request to know why it has higher privileges than any other irregular, active, transitive verb.

I have been thus explicit, with the hope to render this part of grammar more intelligible to the learner, and less perplexing to the teacher, by placing this verb before them in its true character.

REVISER.

## POTENTIAL MODE.

### Present Tense.

The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, and *must*, are used to form this tense, followed by the first form or present tense of the verb.

#### *Singular.*

1. I may, can, or must learn,
2. Thou mayst, canst, or must learn,
3. He may, can, or must learn.

#### *Plural.*

1. We may, can, or must learn,
2. Ye or you may, can, or must learn,
3. They may, can, or must learn.

The potential mode may be used interrogatively, by placing the auxiliary before the nominative; as, may I learn? Canst thou learn? Must he learn? &c.

The verb may be used transitively, in this mode; thus, I may, can, or must learn *my* lesson, &c. It may also be used negatively by using the negative adverb *not*; as, I may *not* learn; He would not learn, &c.

### Imperfect Tense.

Might, could, would, or should, followed by the first form of the verb, forms this tense.

#### *Singular.*

1. I might, could, would, or should learn,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst learn,
3. He might, could, would, or should learn.

#### *Plural.*

1. We might, could, would or should learn,
2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should learn,
3. They might, could, would, or should learn.

### Perfect Tense.

*May*, *can*, or *must have*, followed by the perfect participle of the verb, forms this tense.

#### *Singular.*

1. I may, can, or must have learned,
2. Thou mayst, canst, or must have learned,
3. He may, can, or must have learned.

#### *Plural.*

1. We may, can, or must have learned,
2. Ye or you may, can, or must have learned,
3. They may, can, or must have learned.

### Pluperfect Tense.

*Might*, *could*, *would*, or *should have*, followed by the perfect participle of the verb, forms this tense.

*Questions.*—What are the auxiliaries of the potential mode present tense? How is the imperfect of the potential mode formed? How is the perfect formed? How is the pluperfect tense of the potential mode formed?



*Singular.*

1. I might, could, would, or should have learned,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have learned,
3. He might, could, would, or should have learned.

*Plural.*

1. We might, could, would, or should have learned,
2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should have learned,
3. They might, could, would, or should have learned.

You will do well to compare the perfect tense of the potential mode with the present, and the pluperfect with the imperfect, and notice the difference in their formation; otherwise, you will be apt to mistake one for the other.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.*

To learn.

*Perfect Tense.*

To have learned.

*To* is the sign of the infinitive mode; but the verbs which follow *bid*, *dare*, *need*, *feel*, *help*, *let*, *hear*, *find*, *see*, *perceive*, *behold*, *observe*, or their participles, are in the infinitive mode, without the sign *to*, prefixed; as, *bid him do it*. *He dares not do it*. They *find* difficulties *give* way before them, &c.

The participles of the verb learn are thus formed; Present, learning; Perfect, learned; Compound perfect, having learned.

I have now given you a full display of the verb learn, as it is used in all the modes and tenses; and you can conjugate any other regular verb by putting it in the place of learn. The verb *love* for instance; as, Indicative mode present tense, I love; Imperfect tense, I loved; Perfect tense, I have loved; Pluperfect tense, I had loved; First future tense, I shall or will love; Second future, I shall have loved; Imperative mode, love; Potential mode present tense, I may, can, or must love, &c. By this you may see, that when you are thoroughly versed in the conjugation of the verb learn, you can conjugate any regular verb in our language. How necessary is it then, that you pay particular attention to this subject.

The next thing which particularly claims your attention, is the conjugation of the irregular neuter verb, *be*. This is the most difficult verb in our language, for a young learner to understand; and it is one of the most important verbs in the construction of the language. Its difficulty originates in the variety of its forms, which are the *ten* following, viz: am, art, is, are, was, wast, were, wert, be, been. Its importance arises from two considerations: 1st. It expresses or denotes being or existence; and if there were no existence, no action of any kind would be performed, nor would language exist. 2d. In addition to its denoting existence, in all its modes or manners, it aids in forming all the passive verbs in our language, and without its aid no passive verb, or compound neuter verb, in the passive voice, can exist. From these considerations, and from the fact that it is much more frequently used than any other verb, in the construction of sentences, I trust you will realize the necessity of a thorough and intimate acquaintance with its conjugation.

---

**Questions.**—What is the sign of the infinitive mode? After what verbs is this sign omitted? Form the participles of the verb learn.

**TO BE—INDICATIVE MODE,  
Present Tense.**

- |                  |                   |
|------------------|-------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i>    |
| 1. I am,         | 1. We are,        |
| 2. Thou art,     | 2. Ye or you are, |
| 3. He is.        | 3. They are.      |

**Imperfect Tense.**

- |                  |                    |
|------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i>     |
| 1. I was,        | 1. We were,        |
| 2. Thou wast,    | 2. Ye or you were, |
| 3. He was.       | 3. They were.      |

☞ In the present you see four of the forms of this verb, and in the imperfect tense, three.

**Perfect Tense.**

- |                         |                         |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>        | <i>Plural.</i>          |
| 1. I have been,         | 1. We have been,        |
| 2. Thou hast been,      | 2. Ye or you have been, |
| 3. He hath or has been. | 3. They have been.      |

**Pluperfect Tense.**

- |                     |                        |
|---------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>    | <i>Plural.</i>         |
| 1. I had been,      | 1. We had been,        |
| 2. Thou hadst been, | 2. Ye or you had been, |
| 3. He had been.     | 3. They had been.      |

**First Future Tense.**

- |                           |                                |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>          | <i>Plural.</i>                 |
| 1. I shall or will be,    | 1. We shall or will be,        |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt be, | 2. Ye or you shall or will be, |
| 3. He shall or will be.   | 3. They shall or will be.      |

**Second Future Tense.**

- |                         |                              |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i>        | <i>Plural.</i>               |
| 1. I shall have been,   | 1. We shall have been,       |
| 2. Thou wilt have been, | 2. Ye or you will have been, |
| 3. He will have been.   | 3. They will have been.      |

In presenting the conjugation of the verb *to be*, in the subjunctive mode, I shall only put down the present, imperfect, and second future tenses, because all the other tenses are formed like those of the indicative; and you can conjugate them by putting the conjunction of doubt before the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus, to form the perfect of the subjunctive, put *if, though, &c.* before the perfect of the indicative, and it forms the tense required.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Tense.

*Singular.*

1. If I be,
2. If thou be,
3. If he be.

*Plural.*

1. If we be,
2. If ye or you be,
3. If they be.

## Imperfect Tense.

*Singular.*

1. If I were,
2. If thou wert,
3. If he were.

*Plural.*

1. If we were,
2. If ye or you were,
3. If they were.

## Second Future Tense.

*Singular.*

1. If I shall have been,
2. If thou shalt have been,
3. If he shall have been.

*Plural.*

1. If we shall have been,
2. If you shall have been,
3. If they shall have been.

## IMPERATIVE MODE—According to Murray.

## Present Tense.

*Singular.*

1. Let me be,
2. Be thou or do thou be,
3. Let him be.

*Plural.*

1. Let us be,
2. Be, be thou or do thou be,
3. Let them be.

I will also put this verb in the form which corresponds with my views of the imperative mode.

## Present Tense.

## BE.

## POTENTIAL MODE.

## Present Tense.

*Singular.*

1. I may, can, or must be,
2. Thou mayst, canst, or must be,
3. He may, can, or must be.

*Plural.*

1. We may, can, or must be,
2. Ye or you may, can, or must be,
3. They may, can, or must be.

## Imperfect Tense.

*Singular.*

1. I might, could, would, or should be,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be,
3. He might, could, would, or should be.

*Plural.*

1. We might, could, would or should be,
2. Ye or you might, could, would, or should be,
3. They might, could, would, or should be.

## Perfect Tense.

### *Singular.*

1. I may, can, or must have been,
2. Thou mayst, canst, or must have been,
3. He may, can, or must have been.

### *Plural.*

1. We may, can, or must have been,
2. You may, can, or must have been,
3. They may, can, or must have been.

## Pluperfect Tense.

### *Singular.*

1. I might, could, would, or should have been,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been,
3. He might, could, would, or should have been.

### *Plural.*

1. We might, could, would or should have been,
2. You might, could, would, or should have been,
3. They might, could, would, or should have been.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

### *Present Tense.*

To be.

### *Perfect Tense.*

To have been.

*Participles.* Present, being; Perfect, been; Compound perfect, having been.

## *Passive Verb.*

You have already been informed, that without the neuter verb *be*, no passive verb can be formed, and that the verb *be*, is a principal verb when it does not help to form the passive. By attending to the foregoing conjugation, and comparing it with the passive conjugation, you will see that the verb *to be*, is the same, whether an auxiliary or a principal verb, and that all that is requisite in forming a passive verb, is to join the perfect participle of an active transitive verb, to the verb *to be*, in any of its modes and tenses.

Passive verbs are called regular, when they end in *ed*, and they are irregular when they do not end in *ed*.

The regular passive verb *to be loved*, is thus conjugated.

## TO BE LOVED—INDICATIVE MODE.

### Present Tense.

#### *Singular.*

1. I am loved,
2. Thou art loved,
3. He is loved.

#### *Plural.*

1. We are loved,
2. Ye or you are loved.
3. They are loved.

### Imperfect Tense.

#### *Singular.*

1. I was loved,
2. Thou wast loved,
3. He was loved.

#### *Plural.*

1. We were loved,
2. Ye or you were loved,
3. They were loved.

## Perfect Tense.

*Singular.*

1. I have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,
3. He hath *or* has been loved.

*Plural.*

1. We have been loved,
2. Ye *or* you have been loved,
3. They have been loved.

## Pluperfect Tense.

*Singular.*

1. I had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,
3. He had been loved.

*Plural.*

1. We had been loved,
2. Ye *or* you had been loved,
3. They had been loved.

## First Future Tense.

*Singular.*

1. I shall *or* will be loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be loved,
3. He shall *or* will be loved.

*Plural.*

1. We shall *or* will be loved,
2. Ye *or* you shall *or* will be loved,
3. They shall *or* will be loved.

## Second Future Tense.

*Singular.*

1. I shall have been loved,
2. Thou wilt have been loved,
3. He will have been loved.

*Plural.*

1. We shall have been loved,
2. Ye *or* you will have been loved,
3. They will have been loved.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Tense.

*Singular.*

1. If I be loved,
2. If thou be loved,
3. If he be loved.

*Plural.*

1. If we be loved,
2. If ye *or* you be loved,
3. If they be loved.

## Imperfect Tense.

*Singular.*

1. If I were loved,
2. If thou wert loved,
3. If he were loved.

*Plural.*

1. If we were loved,
2. If ye *or* you were loved,
3. If they were loved.

You may form the perfect, pluperfect, and first future tenses as before directed.

## Second Future Tense.

*Singular.*

1. If I shall have been loved,
2. If thou shalt have been loved,
3. If he shall have been loved.

*Plural.*

1. If we shall have been loved,
2. If ye *or* you shall have been loved,
3. If they shall have been loved.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

## Present Tense.

Be loved.

# POTENTIAL MODE.

## Present Tense.

### *Singular.*

1. I may, can, *or* must be loved,
2. Thou mayst, canst, *or* must be loved,
3. He may, can, *or* must be loved.

### *Plural.*

1. We may, can, *or* must be loved,
2. You may, can, *or* must be loved,
3. They may, can, *or* must be loved.

## Imperfect Tense.

### *Singular.*

1. I might, could, would, *or* should be loved,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst be loved,
3. He might, could, would, *or* should be loved.

### *Plural.*

1. We might, could, would, *or* should be loved,
2. You might, could, would, *or* should be loved,
3. They might, could, would, *or* should be loved.

## Perfect Tense.

### *Singular.*

1. I may, can, *or* must have been loved,
2. Thou mayst, canst, *or* must have been loved,
3. He may, can, *or* must have been loved.

### *Plural.*

1. We may, can, *or* must have been loved,
2. You may, can, *or* must have been loved,
3. They may, can, *or* must have been loved.

## Pluperfect Tense.

### *Singular.*

1. I might, could, would, *or* should have been loved,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been loved,
3. He might, could, would, *or* should have been loved.

### *Plural.*

1. We might, could, would, *or* should have been loved,
2. You might, could, would, *or* should have been loved,
3. They might, could, would, *or* should have been loved.

# INFINITIVE MODE.

### *Present Tense.*

To be loved.

### *Perfect Tense.*

To have been loved.

*Participles.* Present, being loved. Perfect, been loved. Compound perfect, having been loved.

Having shown you the use and application of the auxiliary verbs in assisting to conjugate active, neuter, and passive verbs, I will now make some remarks concerning their several meanings. By learning the import of them in their several applications, and comparing the following remarks with the manner of using them in the preceding observations, you will be prepared to use them properly in writing and conversation.

*Do* and *did* mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater energy or positiveness; as, I *do* speak truth; I *did* respect him; here am I for thou *didst* call me.

These auxiliaries are of great use in negative sentences; as, *I do not fear*; *I did not write*. They are in general use in interrogative sentences, or asking questions; as, *does he learn?* *Did he not write?* They sometimes supply the place of a verb, and make the repetition of it unnecessary; as, you attend not to your studies as he *does*, i. e. as he attends to his studies. I shall come if I can; but if I *do not*, please to excuse me; that is, if I come not, &c.

Let, is never an auxiliary verb.

*May* and *might* express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing; *can* and *could* express the power to do a thing; as, it may rain; I may write or read; he might have improved more than he has; he can write much better than he *could* last year.

*Will*, in the first person, intimates resolution and promising; in the second and third person, it only foretells; as, I will reward the good, and I will punish the bad; we will remember benefits, and be grateful; thou wilt repent of that folly; you or they will have a pleasant walk.

*Shall*, on the contrary, in the first person, simply foretells; in the second and third persons, promises, commands or threatens; as, I shall go abroad; we shall dine at home; thou shalt, or you shall inherit the land; ye shall do justice, love mercy, &c.

The following passage is not translated according to the distinct and proper meanings of *shall* and *will*, "Surely goodness and mercy *shall* follow me all the days of my life, and I *will* dwell in the house of the Lord forever." It ought to be, *will* follow me, and I *shall* dwell, &c.

The foreigner, who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out, I *will* be drowned, nobody *shall* help me, made a sad misapplication of these auxiliaries.

These observations respecting the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will*, must be understood of explicative, or *declarative* sentences; for when the sentence is of the interrogative kind, they generally have an opposite meaning from the foregoing; thus, I *shall* go; Thou wilt go, expresses event only; but, *will* you go? imports intention; and, shall I go? refers to the will of another. But, he *shall* go, and shall he go? both imply *will*, expressing or referring to a command.

The meaning of these auxiliaries, likewise undergoes some alteration, when they are used in the subjunctive mode, as you will perceive by noticing the following examples; he *shall* proceed; if he *shall* proceed; you *shall* consent; if you *shall* consent. These auxiliaries are sometimes interchanged in the indicative and subjunctive modes, to convey the same meaning of the auxiliary; as, he *will* not return; if he *shall* not return; he *shall* not return; if he *will* not return.

*Would* primarily denotes inclination of will; and *should*, obligation; but they both vary their import, and are used to express simple event.

Those tenses which cannot be formed without auxiliary verbs, are called compound tenses; those which can be formed without them, are called simple tenses.

I will now present a list of the irregular verbs of our language, arranged in alphabetical order. These verbs are called irregular on account of their liability to be used improperly; that is, the imperfect tense instead of the perfect participle, and the perfect participle instead of the imperfect tense. If you will pay particular attention to the formation of the second and third columns, as here presented, I will give a plain rule at the end of the list, which will enable you to use them correctly. Those marked with R, are sometimes used regularly.

SECTION 7. *Of Irregular Verbs.*

All verbs which do not form the imperfect tense of the indicative mode, and the perfect participle, by the addition of *d* or *ed*, to the present tense, are called irregular; as,

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
I begin,	I began,	begun,
I know,	I knew,	known,
I write,	I wrote,	written.

The following is a list of the irregular verbs of our language, alphabetically arranged.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bare	horn
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent	bent
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built, R.	built, R.
Burst	burst, R.	burst, R.
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught	caught
Chide	chid	chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i>	clave, R.	cleaved
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	cleft or clove	cloven or cleft
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed	clad, R.
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Creep	crept	crept
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared



<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Dare, to challenge	dared	dared, R.
Deal	dealt	dealt
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Drive	drove	driven
Drink	drank	drunk, drank
Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Eat	ate	eaten, ate
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forget	forgot	forgotten
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got, gotten*
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, R.
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Have	had	had
Hang	hung, R.	hung, R.
Hear	heard	heard
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Knit	knit	knit
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lie, to recline	lay	lain
Lie, to speak falsely, R.		
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Load	loaded	laden, R.
Lose	lost	lost

\*Gotten is nearly obsolete.

*Present Tense.*

Make  
Meet  
Mow  
Pay  
Put  
Read  
Rend  
Rid  
Ride  
Ring  
Rise  
Rive  
Run  
Saw  
Say  
See  
Seek  
Sell  
Send  
Set  
Shake  
Shape  
Shave  
Shear  
Shed  
Shine  
Show  
Shoe  
Shoot  
Shrink  
Shred  
Shut  
Sing  
Sink  
Sit  
Slay  
Sleep  
Slide  
Sling  
Slink  
Slit  
Smite  
Sow  
Speak  
Speed  
Spend  
Spill  
Spin  
Spit  
Split  
Spread  
Spring

*Imperfect Tense.*

made  
met  
mowed  
paid  
put  
read  
rent  
rid  
rode  
rung, rang  
rose  
rived  
ran  
sawed  
said  
saw  
sought  
sold  
sent  
set  
shook  
shaped  
shaved  
sheared  
shed  
shone  
showed  
shod  
shot  
shrunk  
shred  
shut  
sung, sang  
sunk  
sat  
slew  
slept  
slid  
slung  
slunk  
slit  
smote  
sowed  
spoke  
sped  
spent  
spilt, R.  
spun  
spit, spat  
split  
spread  
sprung, sprang

*Perfect Participle.*

made  
met  
mown  
paid  
put  
read  
rent  
rid  
ridden, rode  
rung  
risen  
riven  
run  
sawn  
said  
seen  
sought  
sold  
sent  
set  
shaken  
shaped, shapen  
shaven, R.  
shorn, R.  
shed  
shone  
shown  
shod  
shot  
shrunk  
shred  
shut  
sung  
sunk  
sat  
slain  
slept  
slidden  
slung  
slunk  
slit  
smitten  
sown  
spoken  
sped  
spent  
spilt, R.  
spun  
spitten, spit  
split  
spread  
sprung

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Imperfect Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Stand	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk	stunk
Stride	strode, strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew, strow	strewed, strowed	strewed, strowed or
Sweat	swet, R.	swet, R. (strown)
Swear	swore	sworn
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam, swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear, to rend	tore	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	throve	thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Wet	wet	wet
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	wrought, worked	wrought, worked
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written.

On reviewing this list of irregular verbs, you will notice several which have the same form in all the columns; and it will require an exercise of your judgment to determine their tense, or the time to which they refer. This you will be able to do by attending to the scope of the sentence in which they are employed. In the use of the irregular verbs, you must observe the following rule, if you would use them correctly.

When you employ an *irregular verb* passively, or use the auxiliary *have, hath, has, hast, had, or hadst*, you must invariably use the perfect participle of the verb; or that form which it has in the *right hand column*; but when you would express past time indefinitely, or without either of those auxiliaries, you must use that form of the verb found in the middle column, or the imperfect tense.

For example. If you would use the verb write in the perfect tense of the indicative mode, use it thus: I have *written*; Thou hast *written*; He hath or has *written*; We have *written*, &c. It would be as improper to say, *have wrote*, *has wrote*, *had wrote*, as it would to say, *have was*, *had was*, &c. Many persons say, He has *went*; The bird has *flew*; The man has *spoke*; was *shook*, &c. But as I have laid down a plain and easy rule, to enable you to avoid such gross errors, I hope you will give heed to your writing and conversation, and habituate yourself to use irregular verbs correctly.

I will now give you the *estimated* number of words in our language: perhaps the precise number has not been ascertained. The whole number is estimated at thirty-five thousand; the number of verbs, four thousand and three hundred; of these one hundred and seventy-seven are irregular and defective. Though we have so many words, yet you have only to learn the nine parts of speech already enumerated, and their various changes, to enable you to use the whole correctly.

### SECTION 8. *Of Defective Verbs.*

Those verbs which are used only in some of their modes and tenses, are called defective.

*The principal of them are these:*

*Present Tense. Imperfect Tense.*

Can	could
May	might
Shall	should
Will	would
Must	must
Ought	ought
	quoth.

These verbs have no perfect participles, which is the reason they can be used only in some of their modes and tense, and makes them defective.

In using the verb *ought*, you must notice that it is always followed by a verb in the infinitive mode. When the infinitive verb is in the present, *ought* is in the present tense, but when the infinitive verb is in the *perfect*, *ought* is in the *imperfect*.

When we use this verb, the foregoing rule is the only way in which its tense can be determined.

All that is important in the etymology of verbs, has been presented for your observation.

I have now to request that you will make the whole subject quite familiar to your mind, that you may be prepared to take up the subject in the second part of this work, in which I anticipate the pleasure of blending Etymology and Syntax in a manner so familiar and simple, that you will find much pleasure, and little difficulty, in acquiring a knowledge of parsing or analyzing the language.

I will now make you acquainted with the adverb.

## CHAPTER VII.

## OF ADVERBS.

An adverb is a part of speech that is joined to a verb, participle, an adjective, and sometimes to another adverb, to express some quality or circumstance respecting it; as, *He reads well*; *A truly good man*; *He writes very correctly*.

This part of speech takes its name from its being joined to a verb; it never qualifies a noun or pronoun. Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived to express compendiously in one word, what would have taken two or more words to express, without the adverb; as, *He acted wisely*, *i. e.* with wisdom; *prudently*, *i. e.* with prudence.

We have many words in English which are sometimes used as adjectives, and sometimes as adverbs; as, *More* men than women were there; here *more* is an adjective. I am *more* diligent than he; here *more* is an adverb. *More* is unnecessary: in this sentence *more* performs the office of a noun. The word *much* is sometimes used to qualify *more*; as, *We had much more than was necessary*.

If you have not a distinct recollection of the manner by which an adverb may be known, you will do well to look at it again; for, though this part of speech is generally readily distinguished, yet you will sometimes find some difficulty in determining it.

Some adverbs, like adjectives, admit of comparison; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *often*, *oftener*, *oftenest*, &c.

The words *to-day* and *yesterday* are, by our author, and most other writers on Grammar, considered both as nouns and adverbs. They consider them nouns when they take the sign of the possessive case; as, *To-day's* lesson is longer than *yesterday's*: and adverbs when they denote the time in which any event transpired; as, *He came home yesterday*, and sets out again *to-day*. From this opinion I am compelled to dissent. I cannot see why *to-day* and *yesterday* are not as really nouns in the preceding example, as *last week* and *this week* are in the following: *He came hither last week*, and left here *this week*. If the sign of the possessive case constitutes them nouns in the former example, the sign of the objective case, obviously implied, will constitute them nouns in the latter; as, *He came home on yesterday*, and sets out again *on to-day*. You have both opinions before you, and I trust your independence of mind will lead you to adopt that which, to you, appears correct.

I will next present, for your consideration, a classification of the adverbs, as they are usually arranged by good writers on Grammar; first informing you that this arrangement is very imperfect. Indeed, a perfect classification of all the adverbs in our language, would be a task not

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**Questions.**—What is an adverb? From what does this part of speech take its name? Does it ever qualify a noun or pronoun? For what were adverbs originally contrived? Give the examples. What is said of the use of the word *more*? Do adverbs admit of comparison? Give the examples. Do you consider *to-day* and *yesterday* adverbs? Why?

easily performed, and would swell a volume to but little advantage. You will be able to gain some idea of the subject from these examples, and your own discernment, aided by persevering application, will lead you to comprehend the nature and correct use of this part of our language.

The principal classes of adverbs are those of number, order, place, time, quantity, manner or quality, doubt, affirmation, negation, interrogation, and comparison.

1. Of *number*; as, once, twice, thrice, &c.
2. Of *order*; as, first, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, lastly, finally, ultimately, &c.
3. Of *place*; as, here, there, where, elsewhere, any where, somewhere, nowhere, whither, hither, thither, upward, downward, forward, backward, &c.
4. Of *time present*; as, now, immediately, just now.  
*Time past*; as, already, before, lately, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago, &c.  
*Time future*; as, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, presently, by and by, instantly, &c.  
*Time indefinite*; as, oft, oftentimes, oftimes, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, always, ever, never, forever, forever and ever, &c.
5. Of *quantity*; as, much, little, sufficiently, how much, how great, enough, abundantly, &c.
6. Of *manner or quality*; as, wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly, &c. Adverbs of quality are the most numerous kind; they are generally formed by adding the termination *ly* to an adjective or participle, or changing *le* into *ly*; as, bad, badly; able, ably; admirable, admirably; &c. If you add *ly* to an adjective, it forms an adverb; but if you add *ly* to a noun, it forms an adjective; as, God, Godly; man, manly; earth, earthly; Heaven, Heavenly, &c.
7. Of *doubt*; as, perhaps, peradventure, perchance, &c.
8. Of *affirmation*; as, verily, truly, certainly, indeed, doubtless, surely, really, &c.
9. Of *negation*; as, nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise, &c.
10. Of *interrogation*; as, how, why, wherefore, &c.
11. Of *comparison*; as, more, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, &c.

Adverbs are frequently composed of two or more words; as, *none at all*, *long since*, *a great deal*, &c. These are called adverbial phrases.

We have some adverbs which are composed of the article *a* and nouns; as, *abed*, *athirst*, *aftoat*, *aboard*, *ashore*, *abroad*, *aground*, &c. Others are formed by combining prepositions with adverbs of place; as, *hereof*, *thereof*, *whereof*, *hereto*, *thereto*, *herein*, *therein*, *whence*, *thence*, *whence*, *thence*, &c.

**Questions.**—Speak the different classes of adverbs. If you add *ly* to an adjective, what does it form? If you add *ly* to a noun, what does it form? Speak some adverbial phrases. Repeat some adverbs composed of the article *a* and nouns. Speak some that are formed by prepositions with adverbs of place.

The words *therefore, consequently*, when used with conjunctions, are adverbs; but when no conjunction attends them, they are usually considered conjunctions. The words *when, where*, and others of like kind, are usually considered *adverbial conjunctions*; such as, whenever, wherever, while, till, until, as well as, &c. Adverbial as they relate to time, place, or circumstance; conjunctions, because they join the members of a sentence.

When any of these words aid in asking questions, they are interrogative adverbs; as, where have you been? When were they here? Whence did you come? Whither will they go?

Sometimes the preposition is made to assume the character of an adverb, by its application in the sentence; as, he rides *about*. He was *near* falling; Do not *after* lay the blame on me.

Adverbs are sometimes used *emphatically* in such a manner as not to qualify any particular word of a sentence; but to give emphasis to the whole assertion; as, *Indeed*, he informed me so; *Nay*, infidelity itself might blush at such a spectacle; *Verily, verily* I say unto you, &c.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### OF PREPOSITIONS.

**PREPOSITIONS** serve to connect words with one another, and to show the relation between them. Prepositions may be placed before nouns, pronouns, and present or compound perfect participles; as, He went from London to York; She is *above* disguise; They are instructed *by* him; I am weary *with* hearing him; He lost his credit *by* having forfeited his word.

When the preposition is placed before a noun or pronoun, it performs a double office; that is, it shows the relation existing between the connected words, and shows or determines the case of the noun or pronoun following it. But when the preposition is placed before a participle, it only shows relation, and does not determine the case, *because participles have no case*.

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**Questions.**—What do you call *therefore, consequently*, &c.? What words are called *adverbial conjunctions*? What are *interrogative adverbs*? Does the preposition ever assume the character of *adverb*? What is said of *emphatical adverbs*? What is the use of *prepositions*? Before what parts of speech are they placed? When have they government of case? Have they government of case when placed before *participles*? Why?

It is no more necessary to the nature of a preposition that it govern a case, than it is to the nature of a verb that it have government of case. Both the verb and preposition sometimes have government of case; but they may both be correctly used in language, and not govern.

The following is a list of the principal prepositions:

Of	within	between	down	around
to	without	beneath	before	among
for	over	from	behind	after
by	under	beyond	off	about
with	through	at	on	against
in	above	near	upon	along
into	below	up	across	athwart.

We have many words, not included in the foregoing list, which are frequently used as prepositions. Among these are several words with participial terminations, such as, respecting, touching, concerning, &c. The word *according*, when followed by *to*, may be considered a compound preposition; as, He went *according* to his promise: but when *according* is followed by *as*, it is a compound conjunction; as, "He follows the correct path, *according as* the word of God points it out to him."

Verbs are often compounded of a verb and preposition; as, *up*-hold, *in*-vest, *over*-look; and this composition frequently gives a new sense or meaning to the verb; as, *under*-stand *with*-draw, *for*-give. In our language, the preposition is more frequently put after the verb, and separately from it like an adverb, in which situation it is not less apt to change the meaning of the verb, than when placed before it, and if it changes the meaning it may be considered a part of the verb. Thus, to cast signifies to throw, but to *cast up* signifies to add or compute an account. When the meaning of the verb is changed by a preposition, before or after it, it is called a compound verb. The use of the preposition may be seen in the following examples, which make no sense without this connective; He writes a pen; they ran the river; he was cut an axe; supply the preposition and we at once restore them to good sense: Thus, He writes *with* a pen; they ran *to* the river; he was cut *with* an axe.

The next thing that will claim your attention, is an explanation of some of the prepositions. This explanation, I trust, will awaken your mind to the importance of the subject, and though it will not extend to all the prepositions, it will give you a clue to the subject, and your own application and good sense will supply the deficiency.

*Of* denotes possession or belonging, an effect or consequence, the composing material of a thing, and other relations connected with these; as, The house *of* my friend, that is, belonging to my friend; He died *of* a fever, that is, a fever was the cause of his death; A house *of* wood or bricks, &c. that is, wood or bricks are the composing material, &c.

*To* or *unto* is opposed to *from*; as, He rode *from* Lexington *to* Frankfort.

**Questions.**—Repeat a list of the prepositions. Repeat some prepositions which have a participial termination. When is *according* a preposition? When is it a conjunction? What is said of a verb compounded of a verb and preposition? When are verbs called compound? What does *of* denote? Give the examples. For what purpose is *to* or *unto* used?



*For* indicates the cause or motive of any action or circumstance; as, He loves her *for* (on account of) her amiable qualities, that is, her amiable qualities are the cause or motive of his love.

*By* is generally used with reference to the cause, agent, &c.; as, He was killed *by* a fall; a fall was the cause of his being killed. This house was built *by* him; he was the agent or actor in its being built.

*With* denotes the act of accompanying, uniting, &c. as, we will go *with* you; they are on good terms with each other.

*With* also alludes to the instrument or means: as, he was cut *with* a knife.

*In* relates to the time, place, state, or manner of a thing or circumstance; as, I was born *in* the year 1787, that is, during the continuance of that year. He lives *in* town; she lives *in* affluence. *Into* is used after verbs implying motion, in preference to *in*; as, he rode *into* the country. This sentence implies that he rode from the city, town, village, &c. *into* the surrounding country. If the preposition *in* had been used, it would imply that he commenced, and finished his ride in the country. Copper is converted *into* brass; that is, it is so modified, as to cease to bear the name of copper, and assumes that form called brass.

*Within* relates to something comprehended in some time or place; as, They arrived *within* the limited time. They are *within* the house, &c.

*Without* is opposed in signification to *within*; as, she stands *without* the gate. But in its application in language, it is more frequently opposed to *with*; as, they came *with* her, but they went away *without* her.

The remaining prepositions are so easily understood, that I shall omit giving you a minute description of their use and application; but will caution you against using the words *by* and *with* indiscriminately; as, he walks with a staff *by* moonlight. He was taken *by* stratagem, and killed with a sword. Put one of these prepositions for the other and say, he walks *by* a staff *with* moonlight; he was taken *with* stratagem and killed *by* a sword; and you will be convinced that they differ more in their signification, than you would, at first, imagine.

Several of the prepositions are used by good writers, in a manner that gives them the signification of adverbial conjunctions; as, *after* their prisons were thrown open; he will repent of that deed *before* he dies; they made haste to be prepared *against* their friends arrived. Some authors, among whom is Mr. S. Kirkham, think the noun *time*, should be supplied, which would destroy their adverbial conjunctive import; thus, *after* the time when their prisons were thrown open; *before* the time when he dies; *against* the time when, &c. But were we to admit the propriety of this construction, a conjunction would still be requisite, and that of the adverbial kind, unless we were to change the mode of expression altogether; so that nothing would be gained but a multiplication of words with no profit. The same remarks appear to be applicable to words of this kind when used adverbially. We may indeed, lengthen

**Questions.**—What does *for* denote? How is *by* generally used? Repeat the examples. What does *with* denote? To what does *in* relate? How is *into* used? To what does *within* relate? To what is *without* opposed? Is it admissible to use *by* and *with* indiscriminately? Are any of the words contained in the list of prepositions ever used as adverbial conjunctions?

out our sentence, by supplying every word that the construction will possibly bear, and thus become verbose, without any advantage to our style or sentiment.

It is to be hoped that the mania of supplying ellipsis, where the sense does not necessarily require it, will soon subside.

We have many words which are necessarily used as several parts of speech; and we experience little difficulty in determining their use, and the class to which they belong in all their distinctive associations, nor does any obscurity arise from this application of the words after, before, against, &c. If the rule that, *equivalence in use and meaning constitutes similarity in grammatical construction*, holds good with the words that, what, whoever, &c.—why should it not hold good with regard to the words under consideration, and all others of similar associations?

## CHAPTER IX.

### *Of Conjunctions.*

A conjunction is a part of speech that is chiefly used to connect sentences, so as, out of two or more sentences to make one. It sometimes connects words only; as, three *and* four *and* two make nine. You *and* he were respected, *because* you were diligent. Conjunctions are principally divided into two sorts, the *copulative* and the *disjunctive*.

The conjunction copulative serves to connect or continue a sentence, by denoting an addition, a supposition, a cause, &c. as, he *and* his brother reside in Lexington; I will go *if* he will accompany me; you are happy *because* you are good. The conjunction disjunctive, generally serves to mark an opposition of meaning in the connected members; as, *though* he was frequently reprov'd, *yet* he did not reform; they came with her, *but* they went away without her.

The following lists comprise the principal conjunctions. Copulative, and, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore, provided, besides. Dis-

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*Questions.*—Is it proper to supply an ellipsis after these words? What is a conjunction? How many sorts of conjunctions are there? What are copulative conjunctions? What are disjunctive conjunctions? Repeat a list of the copulatives.

junctive, but, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding.

We have several words which are used sometimes as conjunctions, sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as prepositions; as, I rest *then* on this argument; *then* is a conjunction. In the following sentence it is an adverb of time. He came *then*, and not before.

For is a conjunction when it can be changed into *because* without impairing the sense; as, I submitted *for* (because) it was in vain to resist; when for cannot be changed into *because*, without injury to the sense, it is a preposition; as, I write *for* the benefit of youth. For is copiously used in its conjunctive signification, in the Epistle to the Romans; perhaps 110 times.

Since may be used as a preposition, a conjunction and an adverb; as, I have not seen him since last week; since we must part let us do it peaceably; our acquaintance commenced long since.

The learned Horn Tooke, in his *Diversions of Purley*, proves very clearly that *but*, in one of its derivations, is *analogically* a preposition.

Nay, gentle reader, do not start at this account, and put the grammar where a certain testament was once placed, into the fire. Truth cannot injure you, and if this is not found a truth, you can reject it as error, and hold fast what is true.

Uniformity in the construction of language is what constitutes correctness, and is therefore desirable. This at present, does not exist, in consequence of the diversity of opinion, and consequently of practice among writers and speakers with regard to this *but*. Those who reject the idea of its being a preposition, write thus; no person accompanied me but *he*; i. e. *he accompanied me*. While those who admit that *but* is a preposition when it means *be out*, or *excepting*, write thus; no person accompanied me but *him*; i. e. *be out* or *excepting him*: To produce uniformity in this particular, would be a desirable attainment; and this alone shall be my aim in the following arguments.

Would it not be as proper to apply the rule that *equivalence in meaning, constitutes similarity in grammatical construction* to this word, as to *that, what, for, &c*? If admitted, let us try the experiment, and see what will be the result. All were well but (*be out* or *excepting*) him. No person accompanied me but (*except* or *excepting*) him. I have but (*only*) one friend. I have written but (*only*) one volume. From these and similar examples, it appears proper to say,

When *but* means *except* or *excepting*, or when either of those words can be substituted for *but* without impairing the sense, it is a preposition, and should be followed by the objective case of the noun or pronoun; as, all were well *but him*.

When *but* can be changed into *only* without impairing the sense, it is an adverb; and in all other cases, it is a conjunction disjunctive.

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**Questions.**—Repeat a list of the disjunctive conjunctions. What words are used sometimes as conjunctions, and sometimes as prepositions? When is *for* a conjunction? What is said of *since*? Is *but* ever a preposition? What is the difference of construction among writers, in the use of *but*? What is *but* when it means *except* or *excepting*? What is *but* when it means *only*? What is it when it means neither of these?

I am aware that Mr. S. Kirkham has said that "but is never a preposition;" "*but this is assertion without proof*" or argument. And even if dogmatical assertions would prove facts, his *ipse dixit* would be no better than that of any other man of equal veracity; and while we were proving and disproving our caprices, truth would shun our grasp.

It will be admitted by all, that a rule is necessary for the establishing of this point, and when a better is found, let this be discarded.

The difference in the connexion produced by the conjunction and preposition, is a subject worthy of your consideration; and as it has hitherto been little regarded, and consequently not well understood, I crave your undivided attention, while I shall attempt to lay it before you.

The conjunction connects words to show that the connected words have the same relation to some other word in the sentence; as, John and Brown attend my school. In this sentence, the two words John and Brown, connected by the conjunction *and*, have the same relation to the word *attend*. I saw James and William. In this sentence the two words James and William, have the same relation to the verb *saw*, both being governed by it in the objective case. Examples of the verb, adjective, adverb, and participle, might be multiplied, but it is believed the foregoing will be sufficient to enable your mind to grasp the subject. The connexion produced by the preposition, shows the relation which the connected words have to each other, without any reference to any other word in the sentence; as, Brown sits *by* John. John came *with* Brown. In these examples the preposition shows the relation existing between the connected words, without any reference to any connexion with any other word in the sentence.

When conjunctions serve to connect words only, they are nearly allied in use to prepositions, but essentially distinct in their nature.

In productions highly argumentative, the conjunction is an essential part of speech, as may be seen by referring to the epistles to the Romans and Gallatians.)

In poetry, books of aphorisms, like the Proverbs of Solomon, and highly descriptive writings, conjunctions are of less importance.

The conjunctions, again, further, besides, &c. connect sentences, but never connect members of sentences. Than, lest, unless, that, so that, connect members of sentences, but they should never be used to connect sentences.

But, for, therefore, and, because, &c. may connect sentences or members of sentences.

*Both* is one of the words in our language, that is used by writers, with no small degree of latitude. It is used as three parts of speech, a pro-

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**Questions.**—Who says *but* is never a preposition? How does he prove it? For what do conjunctions connect words? Give the examples. What does the connexion produced by the preposition show? Give the examples. When are conjunctions allied in their use to prepositions? Are they similar in their nature? In what kind of writings are conjunctions most important? In what kind are they of least importance? What conjunctions are used to connect sentences only? Which connect members and not sentences? Which are used to connect both sentences and members?

noun, adjective, and conjunction. In all its uses it has reference to two, and no more.

Mil on makes a wrong application of *both* in its conjunctive signification, in the following passage :

“And under open sky, adored  
 “The God that made *both* sky, air, earth, and heaven,  
 “Which they beheld, the moon’s resplendent globe  
 “And starry pole.”

*Both*, in this sentence, is made to assist in connecting six words; sky, air, earth, heaven, globe, and pole, which is a manifest error, and might have been avoided by using the article *the*: thus, *the* sky, air, earth, &c.

The same word should never be used in the same sentence, in different senses, or parts of speech, when it can be avoided.

Addison has shown the impropriety of this practice, in the following ludicrous use of the word *that*. “The tutor said in speaking of the word *that*, that that that, that that lady parsed, was not that that, that that gentleman requested her to analyze.”

When *both* is used as a pronoun, it refers to two persons or things; as, There arrived; *both* stood, *both* turned, &c. that is, Adam and Eve stood, turned, &c. When *both* is used as an adjective, it refers to two and no more; as, both boys were present; and when used as a conjunction, it always corresponds with *and*, and assists in connecting two words. It may, therefore, be called *dual*, in all its uses; a *dual* pronoun, a *dual* adjective, and a *dual* conjunction.

Relative pronouns are also connectives. Indeed, the union produced by the relative is closer than that produced by the conjunction. The conjunction may unite two or more simple sentences into one compound sentence; but the relative incorporates several sentences into one and the same clause of a sentence; as, Thou seest that man. He is called Peter; Thou seest that man, *and* he is called Peter; That man *whom* thou seest is called Peter. In the first example we have two simple sentences; in the second, those simple sentences are formed into a compound sentence by the connexion produced by *and*; and in the third, we have the same ideas in a single member, by the use of the relative *whom*. The latter sentence is least complex, and not less comprehensive; hence it is preferable.

I shall conclude this chapter with some remarks on the use of the particle *as*.

Perhaps no word in our language has greater diversity in use and application, and is less understood, than this little *as*. It is the general custom to call it a disjunctive conjunction, be its use and application as they may. Hoping your mind aspires to something more than a superficial knowledge of the use of words, I am induced to investigate the

*Questions*.—What is said of *both*? How many parts of speech is *both*? Is it proper to use the same word in different senses in the same sentence? What should *both* be called in all its uses? Are relative pronouns used as connectives? Which produces the closer union, conjunctions or relative pronouns? Give the examples. Which of these expressions are the least complex? Which is preferable? Is *as* ever a disjunctive conjunction?

subject for your benefit; and see whether *as* is ever a *disjunctive* conjunction. To be such, it must connect, and mark an opposition in the meaning of the connected words or members; but does *as* ever mark this opposition? Does it not more frequently mark an exact equality in the meaning? If it does, it would be more proper to call it a copulative, than a disjunctive. In the sentence, he accepted *this* as an equivalent, *as* marks an equality in the meaning of the words *this* and *equivalent*. Some persons contend that *as* is a preposition in sentences like the foregoing; but it would then show relation, which *as never does*. It therefore is improper to analyze it as a preposition.

In the sentence, I saw him *as* he passed; *as* is equivalent in meaning to *while*; thus, I saw him *while* i. e. *during the time in which*, he passed. It is, in this sentence, an adverbial conjunction.

When *as* connects two members of a comparative sentence, it should be called a comparative conjunction; when it denotes time and connects, it is an adverbial conjunction; when it follows *such*, *much*, *many*, or *same*, it is a relative pronoun; as, let *such as* censure others, look well to their own conduct: I have *as much as* will answer my purpose: 'As *many as* were ordained to eternal life believed. His arguments were the same as were formerly adduced.

## CHAPTER X.

### OF INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections are words thrown in between the parts of a sentence, to express the passions, or emotions of the speaker; as, ah! I have alienated my friend: alas! I fear for life: O virtue! how amiable thou art!

Interjections are the only words in our language, which denote passion or emotion. All the other parts of speech represent ideas, the actions expressed, or the qualities or circumstances of action of ideas; or they serve as connectives of ideas, actions, or the qualities or circumstances of ideas or actions; but the interjection performs none of these offices. For this reason it has neither agreement, government, nor connexion.

Interjections may be classed into different sorts, according to the passion or emotion they denote.

1. Of *earnestness* or *grief*; as, oh, O, ah, alas, &c.
2. Of *contempt*; as, *ish*, *tush*, &c.
3. Of *wonder*; as, heigh, really, strange.
4. Of *calling*; as, hem! ho! hallo! so ho! &c.
5. Of *aversion* or *disgust*; as, foh! fie! away!
6. Of *attention*; as, lo! behold! hark!
7. Of *requesting silence*; as, hush! hist!
8. Of *salutation*; as, welcome! hail! all hail!

**Questions.**—Why is *as* not a disjunctive conjunction? Is *as* ever a preposition? Why? When is *as* a comparative conjunction? When is it an adverbial conjunction? When is it a relative pronoun? Give examples. What are interjections? Why has the interjection no agreement, government, or connexion? Repeat the different sorts of interjections.

We have many expressions, which might with propriety, be called interjective phrases; as, impudence of hope! folly in the extreme! away with him! &c.

Persons who wish to speak often and lack ideas, generally make up the deficiency by a copious use of interjections; as, *O dear! dear me! you don't say so!* &c. And in some instances a blind man might discover, that the speaker had a good proportion of mouth, by the pronunciation and frequent occurrence of *l-a-w m-e*.

A word to the wise is sufficient: will you guard against such expressions?

The nine parts of speech have now been presented to you in their etymological dress; and you have been made acquainted with their different forms and changes: but I cannot show you the reasons for *all* those changes, without the aid of Syntax. You must become well acquainted with the observations and reasonings contained in this part of the work; and especially with the questions and answers, if you wish to enter upon the second part to advantage. In combining Etymology and Syntax, it is my design to show you the reasons of the inflections and changes of the different parts of speech, and to show you the correct manner of parsing. "Wherefore, I beseech you" to read "them patiently" and attentively; and it shall be my endeavor to make this useful part of your studies, a very pleasant one.

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**Questions.**—Who make most use of interjections? Who use law m-e? Is it proper to guard against such expressions?

## PART 3RD.

### CHAPTER I.

#### ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

#### SECTION 1. *Of the order of parsing the different parts of speech*

1. The proper manner of parsing an article is, to answer the following interrogatories, asked by the interrogative adverb, *why*. Why an article? Why indefinite? Why definite? To what noun is it prefixed? What Rule?

2. *The Adjective*. Why an adjective? What degree of comparison? How is it compared? To what noun or pronoun does it belong? What rule do you apply?

3. *The Noun*. Why is it a noun? Is it common or proper? Why is it so? What person? Why? What number? Why? What gender? Why? What case? Why? What rule? Decline the noun.

4. *Pronouns. Personal pronouns*. Why is it a personal pronoun? What person? Why? What gender and number? Why? What rule? Decline the pronoun. What case is it? Why? What rule?

*Adjective Pronouns*. Why is it an adjective pronoun? What sort? To what noun does it refer? What rule?

*Relative Pronouns*. Why is it a relative pronoun? To what does it refer for its antecedent? What gender, person, and number? Why? Rule? What case? Why? What rule?

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Repeat the manner of parsing an article. An adjective; a noun; a personal pronoun; an adjective pronoun; a relative pronoun.



5. *The Verb.* Why is it a verb? What kind? If active, is it transitive or intransitive? Why? If passive, how is it formed? Is it regular or irregular? Why? What mode? Why? What tense? Why? What person and number? Why? With what noun or pronoun does it agree? What rule? Conjugate the verb.

6. *The Adverb.* Why is it an adverb? What sort? What does it qualify? What rule?

7. *The Preposition.* Why is it a preposition? What does it connect? What relation does it show?

8. *The Conjunction.* Why is it a conjunction? What sort? What does it connect?

9. *The Interjection.* It requires no instruction to parse the interjection, for it is not placed in a sentence, but thrown in between its parts, and if put in at all, cannot be situated wrong.

When you have become entirely familiar with the proper manner of parsing the different parts of speech, you will be prepared to parse the following sentences.

## SECTION 2. *Of Etymological and Syntactical parsing.*

To analyze or parse a word, means to enumerate all its properties, and to show its grammatical relations, i. e. to show how it affects or influences other words in the sentence; or how it is affected or influenced by other words.

Every word in a sentence, except the *interjection*, either agrees with other word or words, or has some connexion, influence, or relation with, over, or to them. You will notice that in parsing, I shall answer all the interrogatories in the proper manner of parsing; and it is indispensably necessary to your progress, that you have a thorough knowledge of the etymology of the different parts of speech. If you are deficient in this respect, do yourself the justice to review them thoughtfully and attentively, before you proceed further. Many young persons do themselves and their teachers great injustice by neglecting their duty in study, deeming it sufficient if they can blunder over a recitation, without attending, in the least, to the ideas communicated by the author. Pupils of this

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*Questions.*—Repeat the manner of parsing a verb; an adverb; a preposition. What does parsing mean? Must every word in a sentence have a connexion with other words? How do many young persons injure themselves and their instructors? Will you do so?

kind never rise higher in the science, than *grammaticasters*; I hope you will aspire at a higher attainment in the science; and shall endeavor to make parsing as easy to you as possible.

"John's hand trembles."

*John's*, is a noun *because* it is the name of a person: proper, *because* it is a name appropriated to an individual; masculine *gender*, *because* it denotes a male; third person, *because* it is spoken of; singular number, *because* it represents one; possessive case, *because* it denotes property or possession; it has the apostrophe and s, which is the sign of this case; it possesses hand and is governed by hand, according to Rule X. *A noun or pronoun signifying possession, is governed by the noun which it possesses.* John is thus declined, Nom. case, John; Pos. case, John's; Obj. case, John. Proper nouns do not admit of a plural.

*Hand*, is a noun, the name of a thing; common, the name of a sort or species of things; no gender, *because* it has no sex; third person, spoken of; singular number, it represents one; nominative case, it is the actor and subject of the verb trembles. Declined, singular, Nom. hand; Pos. hand's; Obj. hand. Plural, Nom. hands; Pos. hands'; Obj. hands.

*Trembles*, is a verb, *because* it signifies to do; active, *because* it expresses action; intransitive, *because* the action does not pass to an object; regular, *because* it forms the imperfect tense of the indicative mode, and the perfect participle in *ed*, indicative mode, it simply declares a thing; present tense, it denotes present time; third person singular, to agree with its nominative hand, according to

Rule 1. *The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.*

Conjugated, Ind. mode, Present tense, 1st person singular I tremble; 2d Pers. Thou tremblest; 3d Per. He trembles, or the *hand* trembles. Plural, 1st Per. We tremble; 2d. Ye or you tremble; 3d. They tremble.

You must pay particular attention to the manner in which the preceding words are parsed, for I shall refer you to them, when words similarly parsed occur in the following examples; *because* all nouns in the possessive case are parsed in the same manner that John's in the preceding examples, is; and all nouns in the nominative case are parsed in the same manner that hand is; it will, therefore, be unnecessary to write them out in full, in subsequent examples.

**Remark.** The possessive case is always distinguished by an apostrophe, and followed by the *name* of the thing possessed, either expressed or necessarily implied, by which it is governed. It is, therefore, easily known.

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*Question.*—How is the possessive case distinguished?

The nominative and objective cases have no distinguishing mark; but are determined by their situation in the sentence; or by their relation to other words. They are, therefore, more difficult for a learner to determine.

In the natural order of a sentence, the nominative case always comes before the verb, and the objective case follows a transitive verb, participle, or preposition; but in the inverted order, or when the words of a sentence are transposed, they frequently change places, the objective case being placed before the verb, and the nominative after it. This is more frequently the case with pronouns than with nouns, because they have a peculiar form for each case, and changing them does not lead to any obscurity. Paul, in his defence before the Areopagi, has one, perhaps the most elegant in our language, "Whom ye ignorantly worship I declare I unto you." The following is the natural order of this sentence; I declare him unto you, whom ye ignorantly worship. From this example you will see the necessity of fully understanding the meaning of the sentence before you attempt to parse it.

I will now parse a sentence in which you will find the articles, an adjective, and a transitive verb.

A good man speaks the truth.

*A* is an article, a word used to point out nouns, and limit their signification; indefinite, it limits the noun to one of the kind, but does not determine which; it points out the noun man; Rule IX. 1st part. *The article a or an is placed before nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively.*

*Good* is an adjective, it is a word added to a noun or pronoun, to express its quality, kind, or color; it is in the positive degree, it expresses the quality without increasing or diminishing; compared, Pos. good; Comp. better; Sup. best; it belongs to *man*, according to Rule VIII. *Adjectives and adjective pronouns belong to nouns, expressed or understood.*

*Man* is a noun, tell *why*, masculine gender, tell *why*, third person, tell *why*, singular number, *why*? man is in the nominative case to *speaks*, *why*?

*Speaks* is a verb, *why*? active, *why*? transitive, *why*? irregular, because its imperfect tense, spoke, and perfect participle, spoken, are not

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**Questions.**—How are the nominative and objective cases of nouns distinguished? Where is the nominative case placed, in the natural order of a sentence? How are the nominative and objective cases placed in the inverted order? Give the example. What rule do you apply in parsing the indefinite article? Repeat the rule. What rule do you apply in parsing an adjective? Repeat it.

formed in *ed*; indicative mode, *why?* present tense, *why?* third person singular, to agree with its nominative *man*. Rule 1. *The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.*

*The*—is an article, *why?* indefinite, *because* it precisely points out the noun to which it relates, it points out truth. Rule IX. second part. *The definite article, the, points out nouns in both numbers.*

*Truth*—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* singular number, *why?* objective case, governed by the transitive verb *speaks*. Rule XI. *Active transitive verbs govern the objective case.*

I will now present a sentence in which all the parts of speech are exhibited. Such as have been parsed in full in the former examples, will only be put down, not parsed; for it would be an insult to *your memory*, to repeat the definitions. Be pleased to examine every word particularly, and make the manner of parsing entirely familiar to your mind. It is highly necessary for you to be able to repeat the sentence, if you would parse to advantage, otherwise you will not readily discover the propriety of the connexions as you proceed.

“The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man; and it was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator, for the greatest and most excellent uses: but, alas! how often do we pervert it to the worst purposes.”

*The*—is an article, *why?* definite, *why?* it points out power and limits its signification. Rule IX, second part. *The definite article, the, is prefixed to nouns in either number.*

*Power*—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* singular number, *why?* nominative case to the verb is. Declined, Nom. power; Pos. power's; Obj. power. Plural, Nom. powers; Pos. powers'; Obj. powers.

*Of*—is a preposition, it connects power and speech, and shows the relation between them.

*Speech*—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* in the objective case, it follows the preposition *of*, and is governed by it. Rule XVII. *Prepositions govern the objective case.*

*Is*—is a verb, *because*, it signifies to be; neuter, it only denotes being or a state of being; irregular, *because*, its imperfect tense *was*, and perfect participle, *been*, are not formed in *ed*; indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, to agree with power. Rule I. Repeat the Rule.

*A*—is an article, *why?* indefinite, *why?* it points out faculty, and shows it to be one of the kind, i. e. one faculty bestowed on man. Rule IX. first part. *The article a or an, &c.* Repeat the rule.

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*Questions.*—What rule applies in parsing a verb? What rule applies in parsing the definite article? What rule in parsing a noun or pronoun in the objective case, governed by a transitive verb?

**Faculty**—is a noun, *why?* common *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* singular number, *why?* nominative case after *is*. Note 4. Rule XI. *The verb, to be, in all its changes, admits the same case after it, as that which next precedes it.*

**Peculiar**—is an adjective, a word added to a noun to show its quality, kind, or color, in the positive degree, *why?* compared: Pos. peculiar; Comp. more peculiar; Sup. most peculiar; it belongs to faculty. Rule VIII. *Repeat the Rule.*

**To**—is a preposition, *why?* it connects peculiar and man, and shows the relation between them.

**Man**—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* masculine gender, *why?* third person, *why?* singular number, *why?* objective case, governed by the proposition *to*. Rule XVII. *Repeat the Rule* and decline *man* in both numbers.

**And**—is a conjunction, *because* it is a word used to connect sentences, members, and words; copulative, it denotes an addition, it connects two members of a compound sentence.

**It**—is a personal pronoun, *because* it stands for or represents the noun speech, it is no gender, third person singular, *because* the noun is which it personates. Rule V. first part. *Personal pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender, person; and number.*

**Was bestowed**—is a verb, *why?* passive, it denotes a passion or the receiving of an action by the noun or pronoun which is its nominative; regular, *because* it ends in *ed*, it is formed by adding the perfect participle of the active transitive verb, *bestow*, to the neuter verb *be*, in its imperfect tense; indicative mode, *why?* imperfect tense, *because* it denotes past time indefinitely, third person singular, to agree with the nominative *it*. Rule I. *Repeat the Rule.* Conjugated, Singular, 1st Per. I was bestowed; 2d. Per. Thou wast bestowed; 3d. Per. He was bestowed. Plural, 1st. Per. We were bestowed; 2d. Per. Ye or you were bestowed; 3d. Per. They were bestowed.

**On**—is a preposition, *why*, it connects *was bestowed*, and *him*, and shows the relation between them.

**Him**—is a pronoun, *why*, personal, *why*, it personates man, masculine gender, third person, singular number, *because* the noun is for which it stands; Rule V. 1st part. *Repeat the rule.* *Him* is in the objective case, it follows the preposition *on*, and is governed by it; Rule XVII. *Repeat the rule and decline the pronoun.*

**By**—is a preposition, *why*, it connects *was bestowed* and creator, and shows relation; that is, *it marks the agent.*

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**Question.**—What note do you apply in parsing a noun or pronoun, nominative after *be*?

*His*—is a pronoun, *why?* personal, *why?* it personates man as a possessor. Mas. gender, third person singular number; because man is which it personates; Rule V. 1st. part. *His* is in the possessive case, governed by creator.

Rule X. *A noun or pronoun denoting possession, is governed by the noun which it possesses.*

*Beneficent*—is an adjective, *why?* tell the degree of comparison, and compare it—it qualifies creator; Rule VIII. *Repeat the rule.*

*Creator*—is a noun *why?* proper, *why?* mas. gender, *why?* third person, *why?* singular number, *why?* objective case, it follows the preposition *by*, and is governed by it; Rule XVII. *Repeat the rule and decline the noun.*

*For*—is a preposition, *why?* it connects what is bestowed and uses, and shows relation; that is, it marks design.

*The*, is an article, *tell why?* and parse it as you did before.

*The*—points out uses; Rule IX. 2d part. *Repeat it.*

*Greatest*—is an adjective, *why?* superlative degree, because it increases the positive to the highest degree, compared, Pos. great, Comp. greater, Sup. greatest, it qualifies uses; Rule VIII. *Repeat the rule.*

*And*—is a conjunction, *why?* copulative, *why?* it connects the adjectives greatest and most excellent.

*Most*—is an adverb, because it changes the sense of the adjective excellent, and puts it in the superlative degree.

Rule XV. *Adverbs are used to qualify verbs, participles, and adjectives; when they qualify adjectives they must be placed before them.*

*Excellent*—is an adjective, *why?* it is in the superlative degree, *why?* compared, Pos. excellent, Comp. more excellent, Sup. most excellent, it qualifies uses; Rule VIII. 1st part.

*Uses*—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* plural number, *why?* objective case, it follows the preposition *of*, and is governed by *of*. Rule XVII. *Repeat every rule when referred to.*

*But*—is a conjunction, *why?* disjunctive, it connects on a member of a sentence that is opposed in meaning to the preceding member.

*Alas*—is an interjection; it expresses lamentation or sorrow.

*How often*—is an adverbial phrase, it qualifies the verb *do pervert*, and marks frequency of recurrence. Rule XV. *Repeat the rule.*

*Do pervert*—is a verb, *why?* active, *why?* transitive, *why?* regular, *why?* indicative mode, *why?* present tense, *why?* used emphatically

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*Questions.*—What Rule do you apply in parsing a noun or pronoun in the possessive case? Repeat Rule X. What Rule applies in parsing an adverb? Repeat it. Is any rule applied in parsing a conjunction?

with *do* prefixed, first person plural, to agree with its nominative *we*. Rule 1st. *Repeat it.*

*We*—is a pronoun, *why?* personal, *why?* personates the speakers, first person, plural number, nominative case, to *do pervert*. Decline *we*.

*It*—is a pronoun, *why?* personal, *why?* personates power. Rule V. *Repeat the rule.* It is objective case, governed by *do pervert*, Rule XI. *Repeat the rule.*

*To*—is a preposition, *why?* it connects it, and purposes, and shows relation.

*The*—is an article, *why?* parse *the* as you did before, it points out purposes. Rule IX. 2d part. *Repeat it.*

*Worst*—is an adjective, *why?* superlative degree, *why?* compared Pos. bad, ill or evil, Comp. worse, Sup. worst; it qualifies purposes; Rule VIII. *Repeat.*

*Purposes*—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* plural number, *why?* objective case, *why?* governed by *to*. Rule XVII. *Repeat it and decline the noun.*

This may appear to you a tedious method of parsing, but experience has taught that it is necessary, until all the definitions and rules are quite familiar to your mind. To gain them from a printed sheet laid before you, would indeed, gratify a disposition to idleness, and be pleasing to such as wish to gain the advantages of study, without undergoing its fatigues; but to the industrious, energetic, and persevering pupil, it is rather a detriment, than advantage.

As the exercise requisite to procure our food, sharpens the appetite, and prepares us to relish it with delight, so the laborious, assiduous, and persevering study, requisite for gaining useful knowledge, renders it pleasing and delightful to us when thus attained. Then set indolence aside, and close in with industry, and she will enhance your pleasures many fold.

While the indolent are ready to cry "There is a lion in the path," I trust that you, armed with resolution, and relying upon divine aid, will resolutely encounter every difficulty, and aim at the top of the rugged mountain of science.

The relative pronoun is the most difficult word for young learners to parse. I will now show you the manner of parsing this difficult part of speech, and if you study it attentively, and notice its government in all its cases, together with the application of the rules of Syntax, you will find little difficulty afterwards.

That is the man whom we saw.

*That*—is a pronoun of the demonstrative kind; it takes place of the noun *man*, with which it must agree in number and person; *that*, is third person, singular number, in the nominative case, to the verb *is*.

*Is*—is a verb, *why?* neuter, *why?* irregular, *why?* indicative mode,

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*Questions.*—Is any Rule applied in parsing an interjection? Is any in parsing a nominative case?

*why?* present tense, *why?* third person singular, to agree with its nominative case *that*. Rule 1. *Repeat it*.

Conjugated, indicative mode, present tense, 1st person singular. I am, 2d person, thou art, 3d person, he is, &c. *Conjugate it in full*.

*The*—is an article, *why?* definite, *why?* points out man. Rule IX. 2d part. *Repeat it*.

*Man*—is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* *Parse it in full*.

Man is nominative case after *is*, Note 4, to Rule XI.

*Whom*—is a relative pronoun, *why?* refers to man for its antecedent. Rule V. 2d part. *Repeat the rule*.

Whom is in the objective case, *because* the pronoun *we*, is nominative case between *whom* and *saw*, it is governed by *saw*. Rule VI. 2d part.

*When a nominative comes between the relative and verb, the relative is governed by the verb, or some other word in its own member of the sentence.*

You will bear in remembrance, that when the relative whom, which; that, what, or *as*, is governed by a verb, it is always placed before the verb and its nominative case. It is this circumstance which constitutes the difficulty in parsing relatives.

This is what I wanted.

*What*—is a compound relative pronoun, including both the antecedent, and relative, and is equivalent to the thing which; and being equivalent in meaning, it must have a similar grammatical construction; what must therefore, be parsed as two words, *thus*.

*Thing*—the antecedent part of *what*, is a noun, *why?* common *why?* *parse it in full*. *Thing* is nominative case after *is*. Note 4, to Rule XI. *Repeat the note*.

*Which*—the relative part of *what*, is a relative pronoun, *why?* it relates to thing for its antecedent. Rule V. 2d part. *Repeat*. Which is in the objective case, and governed by *wanted*. Rule VI. 2d part. *Repeat the rule*

Whom did you come with? or with whom did you come?

You will here notice, that in the first example the preposition is the concluding word; and in the second it is the commencing word. Both these constructions are strictly grammatical, but the latter is the more elegant, and therefore preferable.

*Whom*—is a relative pronoun of the interrogative kind; it is used in asking a question, and has no antecedent. Whom is in the objective

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*Questions*.—What rule applies in parsing a relative governed by a verb? When the relative pronoun is governed by a verb, how is it placed? What constitutes the difficulty in parsing relative pronouns? How is the compound relative *what* parsed?



case, governed by the preposition *with*, according to Rule VI. 2d part. *Repeat it*, and Rule XVII. *Repeat it also*.

*With*—is a preposition, connects *did come* and *whom*, and shows relation—it denotes the act of accompanying.

You should notice the relation shown by the preposition, with much attention; because it will aid you in understanding the rules for prosing verse, and assist you much in understanding the meaning of sentences.

He is the person *that* I left the parcel with.

*That*—is a relative pronoun, *why?* it refers to person for its antecedent, according to Rule V. 2d part. *Repeat it*. *That* is in the objective case governed by the preposition *with*, Rule VI. 2d part. *Repeat it*, Rule XVII—*Repeat it also*.

When we use the relatives *whom* and *which*, the preposition may be placed either at the beginning or end of the sentence; but when we use the relative *that*, in connexion with the preposition, it must always follow the relative as in the last example. Hence, it is better to avoid using *that*, in connexion with the preposition.

*With*—in the last example, shows the relation between *parcel* and *that*; hence, you may say, that when the relative pronoun is governed by a preposition, if the sentence were formed as the connexion would dictate, it would be a circle.

Whatever nature has in worth denied,  
She gives in large recruits of needful pride.

*Whatever*—is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent in meaning to *every thing which*. Thing, the antecedent part, is a noun, *why?* common, *why?* no gender, *why?* third person, *why?* singular number, *why?* thing is in the objective case governed by gives. Rule XI. *Repeat the rule*.

*Which*—the relative part, is governed by *has denied*, according to the 2d part of Rule VI. and Rule XI. *Repeat those rules*.

In the following sentence from *Blair*, there appears to be an unwarrantable licence in the use of the word *what*.

“Any man who attends to *what* passes within himself, may easily discern *what* a complicated system the human character is; and *what* a variety of incidents must be taken into the account, in order to estimate it truly.” “No single instance of conduct *whatever*, is sufficient to determine it.”

**Questions.**—Why should the relation of the preposition be particularly noticed? When *who* and *which* are used with a preposition, where is the preposition placed? When *that* is used with a preposition, how is the preposition placed? What does *whatever* mean?

The first *what* is a compound relative; the antecedent is governed by the preposition *to*; the relative part is nominative to the verb passes, according to the 1st part of Rule VI. The two succeeding *whats*, may, perhaps, without much impropriety, be called adjective pronouns belonging to their respective nouns, *system* and *variety*; but *whatever* in the last example, appears to be a *non descript*. We may indeed, call it an adjective pronoun, and parse it in some *fanciful* manner, for fear our ignorance should be discovered; but, does it come under any of our rules for composition? If it does, it is some rule which the reviser has not discovered.

If you have attentively considered the manner in which the different parts of speech are parsed in the foregoing examples, you will be prepared to receive instruction in *prose*, and *poetry*; but you must first learn what is a sentence, a member of a sentence, and a phrase.

A sentence is an assemblage of words so arranged as to form complete sense; as, corn grows in the field.

This sentence may be changed into a compound sentence, by connecting on one or more sentences, and when so connected, each one will be considered a member, and the whole, a *compound sentence*; as, corn grows in the field, and men gather it in October, and put it in cribs. This forms a compound sentence, composed of three members, connected by *and*; if the conjunction be removed, it will be three simple sentences; thus, Corn grows in the field. Men gather corn in October. They put corn in cribs.

A phrase is two or more words put together, according to the customary practice of good writers.

We have phrases of various kinds; such as adverbial phrases, interjective phrases; and *some writers* think we have *substantive phrases*.

Sentences may be divided into the four following kinds, viz: 1st. Declarative; 2d. Interrogative; 3d. Imperative, and, 4th. Contingent.

I. Declarative sentences are those which declare a person, being, or thing, to be, or not to be; to do, or not to do; to suffer, or not to suffer, in a direct manner; as, a man should govern his passions; man should not be ruled by passion; passion should be subdued.

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**Questions.**—What is a sentence? How is a compound sentence formed? Give the example. What is a phrase? What kinds of phrases have we? How many sorts of sentences are there? Name the different kinds. What are declarative sentences?

2. Interrogative sentences are used in asking questions; as, who said so? Whom did you see? Can you be diligent?

3. Imperative sentences are used for commanding, supplicating, exhorting, entreating, &c.; as, Give us this day our daily bread! Thou traitor, go! Forgive us our sins!

4. Contingent or doubtful sentences are composed of two members, one expressing doubt, condition, &c. the other a declaration, &c. predicated on that condition; as, I will go, if he will accompany me; If he will accompany me, I will go.

When you have committed the foregoing observations on sentences to memory, and attentively considered their import, you will be prepared to attend to the following rules for prosing verse or poetry.

1. In declarative sentences the principal or leading nominative, with its adjuncts, must have the first place. The verb which agrees with that nominative, must have the second place; and if the verb be transitive, the object of its action, or the objective case, must have the third place. Thus, A truly pious man, resolutely resists all evil propensities. In this sentence, *man* is the leading nominative, *a truly* and *pious*, are its adjuncts; that is, words adjoined to it to point out, show quality, degree, &c.

*Resists* is the verb which agrees with the nominative, and *resolutely* is a word adjoined to the verb to mark the manner of the action; *propensities* is the object of the action, or objective case, and *all* and *evil* are its adjuncts. When there is a phrase or member beginning with a relative pronoun, an adjective, or a participle, referring to the nominative, it may be placed either before the nominative or between it and the verb, as the elegance and euphony of the sentence may require; as, Having finished his letter, he mailed it.

When a phrase or member occurs, beginning with a relative, participle, or an adjective, referring to the object, it may be placed between the verb and objective case, or after the object, as good sense would require.

Relative pronouns must be placed near their antecedents, nouns or pronouns in apposition, must be placed next each other; and adverbs and adverbial phrases, near the words which they qualify.

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**Questions.**—How are interrogative sentences used? What are imperative sentences? How are contingent or doubtful sentences composed? What must have the first place in declarative sentences? What must have the second place? What must have the third place? Give examples. How should intervening phrases be placed?

Thus,

Hesperus, that led  
The starry host, rode brightest, till the moon,  
Rising in clouded majesty, at length,  
Apparent queen, unveiled her peerless light,  
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw.

Prosed according to the foregoing rule, as follows:

Hesperus, that led the starry host, rode brightest, till the moon, apparent queen, rising in clouded majesty, at length unveiled her peerless light, and threw her silver mantle o'er the dark.

— Oft in bands,  
While they keep watch or nightly rounding walk  
With Heavenly touch of instrumental sounds,  
In full harmonic number joined; their songs  
Divide the night, and lift our thoughts to Heaven.

In prosing this, I shall use no word which is not found in the preceding lines.

Their songs oft divide the night, and lift our thoughts to Heaven, while they keep watch or nightly rounding walk in bands, with Heavenly touch of instrumental sounds joined in full harmonic number.

By examining the preceding examples, you will perceive they are both of the declarative kind, and that they are rendered in prose strictly in compliance with the foregoing rule. There is not one word omitted or added in the prose examples. I intreat you to pay particular attention to this subject, because, when you are learning to change poetry into prose, you will be preparing yourself to compose in both.

The following is the rule for interrogative sentences:

2. Interrogative sentences are used in asking questions. They may commence with an interrogative relative pronoun, an interrogative adverb, or a verb or auxiliary in the indicative or potential mode; as, Who said so? Whom did you see? Whose book is this? What have you done? Which did he take? Where has he gone? When will he return? How long will he tarry? Is he here? Were you at home? Can you read? &c. &c.

In interrogative sentences the auxiliary or principal verb generally precedes the nominative, as in the preceding examples; and as you will see by referring to the lists of questions in this work.

Sentences of this kind are generally short, and, except the commencement, are similar to the declarative sentence; and are subject to the same rules.

3. Imperative sentences are used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, supplicating, &c.

This kind of sentences must begin with a verb in the imperative mode, unless there be a noun or pronoun used in a direct address. A noun or pronoun used in a direct address, is in the nominative case independent, corresponding with the latin vocative case; and is generally placed at the beginning of an imperative sentence; as, My son, fear God! Sometimes such noun or pronoun follows the imperative verb; as, "Come, ye blessed of my father."

The imperative verb performs the same office in an imperative sentence, that the leading nominative does in a declarative one, and like that nominative, must generally have the first place.

Sentences of this kind are usually short, and, except the commencement, are constructed on the same principles as the declarative, and subject to the same rules.

4. Contingent or doubtful sentences, have some variety in their commencement. They consist of two parts or members, one indicating doubt, contingency, supposition, &c. The other, containing a declaration predicated upon that condition; as, I will go, if he will accompany me, or, If he will accompany me, I will go. Some writers commence the sentence with the affirmative member, as in the former example; and others commence with the conditional member, as in the latter. The choice of construction is left to the writer or speaker, as custom has not given a decided preference to either.

The contingent member must commence with a conjunction expressive of doubt, as in the foregoing examples, or with what some call the conjunctive form of the verb; as, Had he been there, he would have succeeded: Were they good, they would be happy; that is, If he had been, &c. If they were good, &c. The contingent member is usually short, and has no peculiarity in construction except in the commencement.

The following verse from Pope's universal prayer, commences with an imperative member, continues with a short declarative one, passes on to a contingent, and ends with an imperative:

This day, be bread and peace my lot,  
All else beneath the sun,  
Thou know'st if best bestow'd or not,  
And let thy will be done.

Prosed. *Let* bread and peace be my lot this day, *Thou* knowest if all else beneath the sun *be* best bestowed or not, and let thy will be done.

In the foregoing verse the words *let* and *be* must be supplied. All the trouble in parsing poetry is in prosing it; for when it is once properly laid off in prose style, it is no more difficult to parse than any other prose. This remark is intended to show you the necessity of paying particular attention to this part of our exercises, if you would be an adept in parsing, reading, or understanding this harmonious and pleasing species of composition.

You are now requested to examine the following examples attentively, and carefully compare them with the foregoing rules and observations.

What conscience dictates to be done,  
Or warns me not to do  
This teach me more than hell to shun,  
That more than Heaven pursue.

In changing this verse into prose, we have to break it into two imperative sentences, and supply words which are wanting, and leave out redundant words; Thus: Teach me to pursue what (*the thing which*) conscience dictates to be done, more than I would pursue Heaven. Teach me to shun what (*the thing which*) conscience warns me not to do, more than I would shun hell.

The words *or*, *this*, and *that* are omitted as redundant.

What blessings thy free bounty gives,  
Let me not cast away,  
For God is paid when man receives:  
To enjoy, is to obey.

Prosed. Let me not cast away what blessings (*those blessings which*) thy free bounty gives; for God is paid when man receives. To enjoy, is to obey.

But chief my fear the dangers mov'd,  
That virtue's path enclose:  
My heart the wise pursuit approv'd,  
But Oh! What toils oppose.

Prosed. But the dangers that enclose virtue's path, chiefly moved my fears. My heart approved the wise pursuit: But Oh! What toils oppose.

For see, ah! see, while yet her ways,  
With doubtful step I tread;  
A hostile world its terrors raise,  
Its snares delusive spread.

Prosed. For see, ah! see, a hostile world raise its terrors, and spread its delusive snares; while I yet tread (*in*) her ways with doubtful step.

The foregoing examples will be sufficient, if attentively studied, to enable you to change verse into prose; and as parsing in poetry will facilitate your progress much more than parsing in prose, you will do well to aim at something above mediocrity in this respect.

The next thing that will call your attention is some examples of poetic ellipses and the manner of analyzing or parsing them.

What tho' the swelling surge thou see,  
Impatient to devour.  
What if the foot, ordained the dust to tread,  
Or hand to toil, aspir'd to be the head;  
What if the head, the eye, or ear; repin'd,  
To serve mere engines of the ruling mind.

What tho' in solemn silence all  
Move round the dark terrestrial ball;  
What tho' no real voice nor sound,  
Amid their radiant orbs be found, &c.

It is the opinion of many judicious grammarians, that in the above, and similar examples, the expressions, *What tho'*, and, *What if*, are parts of an unfinished interrogative sentence, which might be completed by supplying the omitted words; Thus, *What does it signify tho' thou see, &c.* *What would it signify or what would it profit, if the head, the eye, or ear, repined? &c.* Perhaps this is as correct a manner of construction, as any that has been adopted.

This would require the interrogative pronoun *what*, to be in the objective case, governed by the verb *does signify, &c.* according to the second part of Rule VI. *Consult the rule.*

I will next present you with some of those anomalous expressions with which superficial grammarians generally arm themselves, to prevent their ignorance from being discovered; such are the following:

My knife is worth a shilling.

She is worth him and all his kin.

The wall is three feet thick.

The stick is ten feet long.

The walls of the chasm are one hundred yards over.

In this kind of sentences, custom has gotten the better of analogy. The proper construction would be:

The worth of my knife is a shilling, or, a shilling is the worth of my knife.

Her worth is greater than his and (add) all his kin, that is, add the worth of all his kin to his worth, and hers would be greater.

The thickness of the wall is three feet.

The length of the stick is ten feet.

The distance of the walls of the chasm is one hundred yards—or the breadth of the chasm is, &c.

You will see that when these and like sentences are constructed in their proper order, a mere Tyro in grammar would find no difficulty in parsing them. The former nouns are nominative before, and the latter nominative after, the verb to be. Note 4, to Rule XI.

Perhaps these sentences, in their *first* form, should be considered idiomatic rather than anomalous; in their latter form they are strictly analogical.

I will, in the next place, present some sentences in which the same word is used differently, by which its classification is changed.

I like what you dislike—*like and dislike are verbs.*

His like is seldom seen—*like is a noun.*

Envy and like passions are detestable—*like is an adjective.*

Charity is like the sun—*like is an adjective.*

His love was ardent—*love is a noun.*

- They love their friends ardently—*love is a verb.*
- Her form is elegant—*form is a noun.*
- They form their sentences well—*form is a verb.*
- Hail was sent on the Egyptians—*hail is a noun.*
- Hail! Beauteous stranger of the wood—*hail is an interjection.*
- I hail thee as a brother—*hail is a verb.*
- Soft bodies damp sound much more than hard ones.
- Damp air is unwholesome.
- Guilt strikes a damp to the stoutest heart.

From these examples you may discover, that nothing but a knowledge of the use and meaning of a word, can determine to what class of words, or part of speech it belongs. Examples of this kind might be greatly increased, but the foregoing will be sufficient to awaken your attention to the subject; and to expose the fallacy of depending implicitly, in all cases, on a dictionary, for ascertaining the parts of speech in your parsing lessons. It is true the dictionary may aid you in this respect, in many instances, and it may lead you into error in as many. Your better way will be to inure yourself in the commencement of parsing, to tell the parts of speech, from their use and situation in the sentence. Still you should make a free use of your dictionary, to learn the meaning and pronunciation of words. This is necessary to enable you to become a finished grammarian, which, I hope, is your design.

Your attention will next be called to the subject of derivation; after which, the rules of Syntax and the notes, together with a great variety of examples, will be presented for your perusal. The subject of parsing will then be resumed, and a copious variety of examples, adapted to the rules, and observations on Syntax, will be presented. Your attention to these subjects will prepare you for our author's exercises in false Syntax: a work well worthy your attention. It will prepare you to correct even the most minute errors in language, and teach you the principles upon which those corrections are made. It is, perhaps, the best work of the kind ever published; and it probably will never be excelled.

## CHAPTER II.

### OF DERIVATION.

By Derivation is meant the manner in which one word grows out of another, or is formed from it; and how several words are formed from one root or primitive word. Many words which are considered primitive in our language, are derived from a root in some foreign tongue; such as, *nominal*, derived from the latin *nomen* a name; radical, derived from the latin *radix*, a root, &c. We have also some words which are not primitive with us, both parts of which are derived from foreign words; as, pronominal, from the latin *pro*, which means for or instead of, and *nomen*, a name or noun. The words *anomaly*, and *anomalous*,



come from the latin prefix *a*, which means without, and *nomen*, a name; hence you see the word *anomaly*, means without a name. The English scholar is not expected to enter into derivation of this kind; but into that which is purely English.

Words are derived from one another in various ways:

1. Nouns are derived from verbs; as, from the verb to love, comes the noun lover; from the verb to visit, comes the noun visiter; from the verb to survive, comes the noun survivor, &c.

We have many words, in which it is difficult to determine whether the noun was derived from the verb or the verb from the noun. Such are love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; walk, to walk; &c.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and, sometimes, from adverbs; as, from the noun salt, comes the verb to salt; from the adjective warm, comes the verb to warm; and, from the adverb forward, comes the verb to forward. Some are formed by changing the form of the word, or by an additional syllable; as, from the noun grass, comes the verb to graze; from the noun length, comes the verb to lengthen; from the adjective short, comes the verb to shorten, &c.

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns in five different manners; Thus, Adjectives denoting plenty, are derived from nouns, by adding *y*; as, from the noun health, comes the adjective healthy; from wealth, comes wealthy; might, mighty, &c.

Adjectives denoting the matter of which any thing is made, are derived from nouns by adding *en*; as, oak, oaken; wood, wooden; wool, woollen, &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance, are derived from nouns, by adding *ful*; as, joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful, &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, are derived from nouns, by adding *some*; as, light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome, &c.

Adjectives denoting want, are derived from nouns, by adding *less*; as, worth, worthless; joy, joyless; harm, harmless.

Adjectives denoting likeness, are derived from nouns, by adding *ly*; as, man, manly; God, godly; earth, earthly.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, and sometimes from nouns, by adding *ish*; as, black, blackish; white, whitish; red, reddish. This termination, when added to adjectives, lessens the quality below the positive; but when added to nouns, it signifies similitude or tendency to a character; as, boy, boyish; child, childish; girl, girlish; woman, womanish.

Adjectives denoting capacity are derived from verbs or nouns by adding *able*; as, change, changeable; marriage, marriageable; laugh, laughable, &c.

4. Nouns are derived from adjectives in various ways. Sometimes

by adding *ness*; as, bold, boldness; white, whiteness, &c. Sometimes by a considerable change in the word, leaving barely enough of its form to mark the derivation; as, long, length; strong, strength; high, height. Nouns of this kind are called abstract nouns, because they are names of qualities abstracted from the substance to which they belong.

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding *ly*; as, base, basely; slow, slowly; or by changing *ic* into *ly*; as, able, ably; notable, notably, &c.

The quality marked by the adverb, is the same as that denoted by the adjective from which it is derived.

Far the greater portion of the words of our language are derivative. The primitive words form but a small portion; and if I were to mark every manner of derivation, it would swell to a volume.

The foregoing are given as specimens to call your attention to the subject; your own good sense and close thinking, will enable you to pursue the subject, without additional examples. A thorough acquaintance with your Dictionary, will aid you much in this respect; without it, multiplying examples would avail but little. I hope you will make yourself acquainted with the signification of all the words that occur in your reading. Look for instance, at the word *till*, and you will find that it has four different uses, and may be used as four different parts of speech, according as it is placed in the sentence.

Walker's Dictionary has long been taken for a standard, but from the favorable manner in which the British and American critics have noticed Webster's Dictionary, it probably possesses excellencies which will give it the preference, and bring it into use in our schools and seminaries of learning, if published in a size, and at a price within the grasp of persons in moderate circumstances.

## PART 4TH.

## OF SYNTAX AND SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

## CHAPTER I.

*Of the Rules of Syntax and Notes.*

The third part of Grammar is Syntax, which teaches the proper manner of constructing words into sentences, by showing their agreement, government, connexion, and dependence.

By agreement is meant the change which words undergo, on account of the gender, number, or person of the word or words with which they stand connected.

By government is meant that influence which one word has over another, in changing its form, use, or meaning, as it respects mode, tense, or case.

By connexion is meant, the union produced in words or sentences, by the connective parts of speech. The connective parts of speech are the relative pronoun, conjunction, and preposition.

By dependence is meant that necessity which exists in the subordinate or dependent parts of speech, to refer to their principal to ascertain their import. For example, the article makes no sense when placed alone; as, I saw a—a what? A man, a horse, a book, &c.

The infinitive mode is incident to this dependence; as will be seen in the following sentences.

This man is *to do* my work—*this implies obligation.*

This man is *able to do* my work—*implies ability.*

This man is *willing to do* my work—*implies willingness.*

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**Questions**—what is syntax, or of what does it treat? What is meant by agreement? What is meant by government? What is meant by connexion? Which are the connective parts of speech? What is meant by dependence? Which mode is incident to this dependence? Give the examples.

All these implications depend on the word which influences the infinitive verb; or on which it depends.

To produce uniformity in the use of language, (*which constitutes correctness*) the following rules, drawn from the approved practice of good writers, are submitted.

#### RULE I.

A verb which admits of a nominative case, must agree with its nominative in number and person; as, I learn, thou hast improved, the birds sing, thou learnest, he learns, &c.

The agreement of the verb is determined by its ending. The infinitive and imperative modes do not admit of a nominative case, therefore, these verbs are not governed by Rule 1.

This rule is violated in the following examples: "What signifies good opinions if our practice is bad?" It should be *signify*, to agree with *opinions* in the plural. "If thou would be easy and happy in thy family, be careful to observe discipline." It should be *wouldst* to agree with *thou*. "Great pains has been taken;" *have been taken*, to agree with *pains* in the plural. "The number of the names together, were about one and twenty;" *was* to agree with *number* in the singular.

"But thou false promiser, never shall obtain thy purpose;" it should be *shalt* to agree with *thou* in the second person.

"And wheresoever thou turns thy view;" *turnest* to agree with *thou*.

NOTE 1. The infinitive mode or part of a sentence is frequently put as nominative case to a verb; as, "To see the sun is pleasant." "To be good is to be happy." "A desire to excel others in learning and virtue, is commendable." "That warm climates should accelerate the growth of the human body, and shorten its duration, is reasonable to believe." In the foregoing sentence, the preceding part is nominative to the verb *is*. This you will readily perceive by asking (not *putting*) the question, what is reasonable to believe? When an adjective follows a personal tense of the verb *to be*, it qualifies the nominative to the verb;

*Questions.*—What constitutes correctness in language? How is the agreement of the verb determined? Why are not the infinitive and imperative modes governed by Rule 1? Do adjectives ever qualify members of sentences? When?

hence the adjective *reasonable* qualifies the preceding member of the sentence, because it performs the office of a noun.

NOTE 2. Every verb except in the imperative and infinitive modes, and participle, must have a nominative case, either expressed or understood.

This note is violated in the following examples: "If the calm in which he was born, and lasted so long, had continued," &c. In this sentence the verb *lasted* is used without a nominative, either expressed or implied; it should have been, and *which lasted*. "These we have extracted from a historian of undoubted credit, and are the same that were practiced," &c. In this sentence the verb *are* is used without a nominative; it should be, and *they are*, &c. "A man whose inclinations led him to be corrupt, and had great abilities to manage the business," &c. It ought to be, and *who* had great abilities, &c.

NOTE 3. Every nominative case, except the case absolute and independent, should belong to a verb, either expressed or implied; as, "Who wrote this book?" Murray. That is, Murray wrote it. "To whom thus Adam;" that is, *spoke*.

You will frequently meet with violations of note third. I will present a few examples, that the subject may be familiar to you. "*Which rule*, if it had been observed, a neighboring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which hath been offered up to him." The pronoun *it* is nominative to the verb *had been observed*, and *rule* is left without any verb to agree with it. It should have been, if *this rule* had been observed, &c.

"Man, though he hath great variety of thoughts, and such from which others as well as himself, might receive profit and delight, yet they are all within his own breast." In this sentence the nominative *man*, has no verb to agree with it. It should be, though *man* has great, &c. leaving out the pronoun *he*.

NOTE 4. When the verb to be, in any of its forms, comes between two nouns, either of which may be considered the subject of the affirmation, it may agree with either of them. It is necessary in this case, to consider which bears most forcibly on the verb, and which stands next to it; as, "His meat *was* locusts and wild honey." "A great cause of the low state of industry, *were* the restraints put upon it." This sentence would be improved by saying, the restraints put upon industry, *were* the principal cause of its low state. "The wages of sin is death."

X NOTE 5. A noun or pronoun placed before a participle, without any personal tense of a verb to agree with it, is in the nominative case absolute; as, "Shame being lost, all virtue is lost;" "That having been discussed before, there is no occasion to resume it."

**Remark 1.** A noun or pronoun, used in a direct address, is in the nominative case independent, *answering to the latin vocative case*; as, *James, I desire you to study. Fathers, the time is come, &c.*

**Remark 2.** All nouns in the second person are in the nominative case independent.

Some writers contend that the phrases *as appears, as follows, &c.* form what are called impersonal verbs. I have my doubts whether *impersonal* be a proper appellation, taken in its strict sense; but as names do not alter things, it is needless to contend about them. Such expressions are inelegant, if not incorrect, and should be avoided.

#### RULE II.

Two or more nouns, or nouns and pronouns, in the singular number, connected together by one or more copulative conjunctions, expressed or understood, must have verbs, nouns, and pronouns, in the plural, to agree with them; as, "*Socrates and Plato were wise; they were the most eminent philosophers of Greece.*" *The sun* that rolls over our heads, *the food* that we receive, *the rest* that we enjoy, daily *admonish* us of a superior and superintending power.

The following are instances of the violation of this rule: "*And so was also, James and John the sons of Zebedee, who were partners with Simon.*" *Was* should be *were*, to agree with *James and John*, connected by a copulative.

"*All joy, tranquility, and peace, even forever and ever, doth dwell.*" It should be, *dwell forever*. "*By whose power all good and evil is distributed;*" good and evil *are distributed*. "*Their love, and their hatred, and their envy, is now perished;*" *is* should be *are*, to agree with *love, hatred, and envy*, connected by *and*. "*The thoughtless and intemperate enjoyments of pleasure, the criminal abuse of it, and the forgetfulness of our being accountable beings, obliterates every serious thought of the proper business of life, and effaces the sense of religion and of God;*" It should be *obliterate* and *efface*, to agree with the nouns *enjoyment, abuse* and *forgetfulness*, connected by *and*.

**NOTE 1.** It is evidently contrary to reason, and to every principle of Grammar, to consider two distinct ideas as one, however nice may be their shades of difference; and to connect two words by a conjunction, which mean the same thing, is contrary to grammatical usage. Two nouns connected by a copulative conjunction, must *always* require a plural verb. Therefore, the following sentence is incorrect; "*Sand and*

salt, and a mass of iron is easier to bear, than a man without understanding;" It should be, and, or salt, or a mass of iron is, &c. See Rule 3.

NOTE 2. When singular nouns are connected by a preposition, only the former one is nominative to the verb; the latter is in the objective case governed by the preposition. Therefore, the verb must be singular; as, "Prosperity with humility, renders its possessor truly amiable." "The ship, with all her furniture, was lost." "The general also, in conjunction with the officers, has applied for redress." "The king with his life guard, has just passed through the village."

The following are a few violations of this principle: "The king, with the lords and commons, form an excellent frame of government;" *forms*. "The side A, with the sides B and C, compose the triangle;" *composes*. "The fire communicated itself to the bed, which, with the furniture of the room, and a valuable library, were all destroyed;" It should be, *was destroyed*, to agree with which, referring to bed for its antecedent. See Rule V.

NOTE 3. If the singular noun and pronoun, connected by the copulative conjunction, contain the second person and not the first, the plural pronoun must be of the second person, to agree with them; as, Thou and he shared it between *you*. If they contain the first person, the plural pronoun must be in the first person; as, James, and Thou, and I, are attached to *our* country. John, and Brown, and I, make *us* or *we*; as the case may require.

### RULE III.

When singular nouns and pronouns are connected by disjunctive conjunctions, the verb, noun, and pronoun must be in the singular number; as, Peter or John was blameworthy; John, James, or Joseph intends to accompany me; There is in many minds neither knowledge nor understanding.

The conjunction disjunctive has, in this respect, an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative. The following sentences contain violations of this rule:

"A man may see a metaphor or allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description;" read *it*, &c. "Neither character nor dialogue were yet understood;" It should be, *was* yet understood, to agree with character or dialogue, taken separately. "Death, or some worse misfortune, soon divide them;" It ought to be *divides*.

NOTE. 1. When singular nouns or pronouns of different persons are disjunctively connected, the verb must agree in person with the one placed nearest to it; as, I or thou art to blame; Thou, or I, or he, is in fault.

This construction is inelegant, if not ungrammatical, and should be avoided. It ought to be either, I am to blame, or thou art, &c.

NOTE 2. When nouns, or nouns and pronouns of both numbers, are connected by a disjunctive conjunction, the verb must agree with the plural one; as, "Neither poverty nor riches were injurious to him." "I or they *were* offended." The plural noun or pronoun should be placed next to the verb, as in the preceding examples.

#### RULE IV.

A noun of multitude or signifying many, may have a verb or pronoun, either of the singular or plural number, to agree with it, as the sense may require; as, The meeting *was* large; The assembly has adjourned; My people *do* not consider; *They have* not known me; The council *were* divided in *their* sentiments; The peasantry *go* barefoot.

As the writer or speaker knows the meaning which he attaches to the collective noun, and that meaning is made known to others by the form of the verb and pronoun, he should be particular in this respect. Correct taste and information, aided by a clear conception of the ideas we intend to communicate, appear to be the chief requisites in the application of this rule.

#### RULE V. PART 1ST.

Personal pronouns must always agree with their nouns, in gender and number, and they generally agree in person; as, The man is healthy, because *he* is temperate. Eliza has returned and *she* is in good health. The book is published and *it* meets with general approbation.

#### PART 2ND.

Relative pronouns must agree with their antecedents, in gender, person, and number; as, Thou *who* lovest wisdom; I *who speak* from experience; The day *which is* past is gone forever. The agreement of the relative is determined by the form or ending of the verb which agrees with it, as you may discover by the preceding examples.



Violations of both parts of this rule are frequent. A few examples will serve to put you on your guard. "Each of the sexes should keep within *its* particular bounds, and content *themselves* with the advantages of *their* particular districts." It should be, The sexes should keep within *their* particular bounds, &c. "Can any one, on *their* entrance into the world, be fully secure that *they* shall not be deceived?" It should be, can any one, on *his* entrance—that *he* shall not be deceived. "He had one acquaintance *which* poisoned his morals." It should be, *who* poisoned, &c.

Every relative must have an antecedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied; as, "Who is fatal to others is so to *himself*;" that is, the man who, the person who, or, he who is, &c.

X *Who, which, what*, and the relative *that*, when governed in the objective case, by a transitive verb, are always placed before the verb and its nominative case; as, He *whom* ye seek, has gone hence; This *is what* you want; This is the same person *that* you saw.

{ You will do well to attend particularly to the foregoing remarks and examples, because the government and construction of the relative pronoun, is not easily comprehended by the young learner.

*What*, has been, by some writers, restricted to the singular number, and considered as equivalent to that which, or the thing which; but we have good authority for the use of it in the plural, being equivalent to those which, or those things which; as, All fevers except what, or *those which*, are called nervous.

NOTE 1. Personal pronouns should not be used in the same member of the sentence with the nouns which they personate. It would be improper to say: The king *he* is just; I saw *her* the queen; My father *he* said so; My banks *they* are furnished with bees. These sentences will be rendered correct by omitting the pronouns, thus: The king is just; I saw the queen, &c. "Who instead of going about doing good, *they* are perpetually intent on doing mischief." In this sentence the pronoun *they* should be omitted, the relative pronoun *who* being the nominative to the verb *are*.

NOTE 2. *That*, as a relative, is applied both to persons and things. It is used in preference to who or which, in two instances. 1st. After an adjective in the superlative degree, and after the adjective, same; as, "Charles XII king of Sweden, was the *greatest* madman *that* the world ever saw;" "Cataline's followers were the *most* profligate *that* could be found in any city;" "He is the *same* man *that* we saw before." 2d. When persons make only part of the antecedent, and after the interrogative pronoun who; as, "The woman and estate *that* became his portion, were too much for his moderation;" "Who, *that* has any sense of religion, would have argued thus?"

NOTE 3. The pronoun *which soever*, is elegantly divided by the interposition of its corresponding noun, *about*; "On which soever side the king turned his eyes, would sound better thus: On which side soever.

NOTE 4. It is highly improper to use the objective *them* instead of *those*; Many are prone to err in this respect, in conversation, and some instances of it may be found in writing; as, Give me *them* books; Look at *them* three there; Give me one of *them* apples; Speak to *them* boys. Faults of this kind savour of the vulgar, and should be scrupulously avoided, by saying *those* apples, *those* books, &c.

NOTE 5. The word *what*, in the following sentence, is considered, by most grammarians, as used improperly instead of *that*; "They will never believe but *what* I have been entirely to blame." From this opinion the compiler is compelled to dissent, and from full conviction, to contend that it is proper to use *what* and not *that*, in sentences of this nature. By giving the sentence the following turn, we shall see that *what* is a compound relative, equal in meaning to the thing which. Let this thing, *that I have been entirely to blame*, be out, and they will not believe; Or, they will not believe, excepting this *thing, which* is, that I have been entirely to blame.

It is certainly incorrect to connect two members of a compound sentence by both a *copulative* and *disjunctive* conjunction at the same time; for "The conjunction disjunctive has an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative," and these contrary effects must produce a heterogeneous connexion. This mode of expression were better avoided.

NOTE 6. It is improper to apply the relative pronoun *who*, to a term which only implies the idea of persons, and expresses them by some epithet or circumstance; thus, "That faction in England *who* most powerfully opposed his arbitrary pretensions;" Better thus, That faction in England *which*, &c. "France, *who* was in alliance with Sweden;" Better, France *which* was, &c. "The cities *who* aspired," &c. *which* aspired. "The number of substantial inhabitants with *whom* some cities abound;" with *which*, &c.

In speaking of present company it is proper to use *who*; but in speaking of absent company, or of company in general, it is better to use *which*; as, None of the company *which* he most affected, could cure him of his melancholy.

The same observation is applicable to the word acquaintance.

NOTE 7. There appears to be some harshness in the application of *who* to children, but a still greater harshness in its application to animals; as, "A child *who*, &c. The pronoun *that* would have been better; "A lake frequented by that fowl *whom* nature has taught to dip the wing in water;" fowl *which* would have been better.

NOTE 8. When the name of a person is used merely as an epithet, without direct reference to personal identity, it would be better to avoid the use of *who* with reference to it; as, "It is no wonder if such a person did not shine at the court of Queen Elizabeth, *who* was but another name for wisdom and prudence;" Better, *which* was but another name, &c.

The word *whose*, is used by good writers, as the possessive case of *which*; as, "Is there any other religion *whose* followers are punished." When this mode of expression is used sparingly, it forms a pleasing variety, and adds to the conciseness of expression.

When we wish to distinguish one person among a number, or, one person of two, we say, *which* of them is he or she. *Which*, in this use of it, performs the double office of interrogative and distributive.

NOTE 9. As the relative pronoun has no distinctive form to denote number, we sometimes find an ambiguity in the use of it; as, The disciples of Christ whom we imitate; we may mean the imitation of Christ or of his disciples. The accuracy and clearness of a sentence, depend much upon the clear and determinate use of the relative, so that its antecedent may be readily presented, without obscurity or ambiguity.

NOTE 10. *It is* and *It was*, are often used in a plural construction; as, "*It is* either a few great men who decide for the whole; or, *it is* the rabble that follow a seditious ring leader;" "Tis these that early taint the female mind." In the following sentence this licence has been abused. "It is wonderful the very few accidents which, in several years, happen from this practice."

NOTE 11. When the pronoun of the first person is used in an interjective phrase, it should have the objective form; as, O me! Ah me! When the pronoun of the second person follows the interjection, it is in the nominative case independent, and must have the nominative form.

To say that the interjection governs the case of pronouns, appears to be assigning to it an office to which it has no pretensions.

The neuter pronoun *it*, appears to be the legitimate Proteus of the English language. Though its forms of construction may fall somewhat short of those of that *fabled deity*, yet they are so numerous, that I shall probably be excused for the comparison.

The following are some of the varieties in the use of this little *two-lettered* word.

1st. It is joined in construction with nouns either in the masculine or feminine gender, either in the singular or plural number; as, "*It was he* or *she* that did it." *It* is also used with nouns and pronouns in all the persons; as, "*It was we* who relieved his wants;" "*It was I* that did it."

2d. It is used to express the subject of a discourse or inquiry; as "*It* happened on a summer's day;" "Who is *it* that calls me?" "Who was it that performed the labor?"

3d. The condition or state of any person or thing; as, "How is it with you?"

4th. The person or thing that is the cause of any effect or event; as, "We heard her say *it* was not he;" "The truth is, *it* was I that helped her." *It* may be used to personate a member of a sentence, a whole sentence, or a number of sentences taken together. *It* is frequently used in place of a verb in the infinitive mode; when thus used, the infinitive verb has a subsequent situation in the sentence; and were this pronoun not used, the infinitive verb would be nominative case to the verb; as, "*It* is pleasant to see the sun;" What is pleasant? To see the sun is pleasant.

#### RULE VI. PART 1st.

The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative comes between the relative and verb; as, The master *who* taught us, was eminent; The trees *which* are planted, flourish; He *that* is studious deserves praise.

#### PART 2ND.

When a noun or pronoun in the nominative case, stands between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by the following verb, or some other word in its own member of the sentence; as, That is the man *whom* we saw; This is the tree *which* he described; He *who* preserves me, to *whom* I owe my being, *whose* I am, and *whom* I serve, is eternal.

In the several members of the last sentence, the relative performs different offices. In the first member it marks the agent, and is, therefore, in the nominative case: In the second it is in the objective case governed by the proposition *to*: *It is in the objective case because the nominative I comes between the relative and the verb owe*: In the third it is in the possessive case governed by a noun understood; and in the fourth *whom* is in the objective case governed by the following verb *serve*. By noticing this sentence particularly, together with the directions, or explanations, and then paying attention to the following observations, I hope the difficulties attendant upon this part of speech will be measurably removed.

When a nominative comes between the relative and a transitive verb, the relative is usually governed by the transitive verb; as, He *whom* I saw. Sometimes the following case is governed by the transitive verb,

and in this case the relative will depend on a following verb in the infinitive mode; as, Teach me to shun the thing *which* conscience warns me not to do; In this sentence *which* is governed by the infinitive verb to do, because the transitive verb *warns* governs *me* in the objective case; and no verb, except *name*, *call*, and *render*, can govern two objective cases. When a nominative comes between the relative pronoun and the neuter verb *Be* in any of its forms, the relative is usually nominative *after* the neuter verb; as, Who do men say that I am? Sometimes, however, the neuter verb is followed by a transitive verb, which will cause the relative to be in the objective case; as, Whom am I to address? The neuter verbs *seem* and *appear*, are generally followed by another verb in the infinitive mode. When, therefore, a nominative comes between the relative and either of these verbs, the *case* of the relative will be determined by the infinitive verb; as, Whom did he seem to respect? When the case of the relative is determined by the verb *to be*, you must ascertain what *case* precedes that verb, and make the relative of the same; as, Whom did you take *me* to be?

These remarks do not comprehend *all* the positions of the relative pronoun; but they are deemed sufficient to awaken the mind of the industrious learner, to the importance of the subject, and to direct his mind in the inquiry. The idle and slothful, the mischievous and playful, and above all, the vicious, are not expected to be benefitted by this portion of my labors.

For directions in the use of the relative and preposition, see the preceding examples in parsing.

The following are a few of the prevalent violations of the latter part of the sixth rule, in familiar style. *Who* did you see there? *Who* did you go with? *Who* did you accompany? *Who* did you most admire? *Who* of all my acquaintances, did you see in your absence? In all the above instances *who* should be *whom*.

We have some instances of the wrong application of this pronoun in the Scriptures; as, *Whom* do men say that I, the son of man, *am*? *Whom* say ye that I *am*? It should be *who* in both places, to be nominative after the verb *am*. As the relatives *which* and *that* have no varieties of form on account of case, they are not liable to be used erroneously in this respect.

When the antecedent and relative are both in the nominative case, the relative is the nominative to that verb which stands next to it, and the antecedent is nominative to the verb which follows the member, dependent on the relative; as, "*He* who tastes them oftenest, *will relish* them best." *He* who studies diligently, *will improve* in knowledge. The compound relative *what* frequently performs the office of a double nominative, or two nominatives to different verbs; as, "*What was* wanting

in this case, *was* not a prosecutor nor a criminal; but justice and adequate punishment." "Whatever is, is right."

In the former of the foregoing sentences, *what* is nominative to the verbs *was* and *is*; In the latter, *whatever* is nominative to *is* and *is*; the antecedents in both cases being nominative to the latter verb.

The following sentence, from a learned author, is a curious specimen of construction; "These are the things, which, God, who cannot lie, hath said, should come to pass."

When the relative pronoun is of the interrogative kind, the noun or pronoun containing the answer, must be in the same case as that which contains the question; as, Whose books are these? John's. Who gave them to him? We. Of *whom* did you buy them? Of a bookseller; *him* who lives at the Bible and Crown.

By supplying the words understood in the answers, you will readily perceive the force and propriety of Note 1; as, They are John's books. We gave them to him. We bought them of a bookseller; of him, &c.

#### RULE VII.

When the relative is preceded by two nominatives of different persons, the relative and its verb may agree in person with either, as the sense may require; as, I am the man *who* command you, or, I am the man *who* commands you.

The former of the above examples is not correctly expressed. It should be I who command you am the man, for these two modes of expression have, by no means, the same signification. When the relative and its verb have been made to agree with one of the foregoing nominatives, that agreement must be continued throughout the sentence, for it would be a gross error to change the relation once established. Recollect that the relation of the pronoun is determined by the ending of its verb.

#### RULE VIII. PART 1ST.

Every adjective, and every adjective pronoun belongs to a noun expressed or understood; as, He is a good, as well as a wise man; Few are happy; That is, Few persons are happy persons. This is a pleasant walk; that is, This walk is a pleasant walk.

## PART 2ND.

Adjective pronouns, *which refer to number*, must agree with their nouns in number; as, This book, These books; That sort, Those sorts; Another road, Other roads.

A few instances of the violation of the second part of this rule, are here presented.

I have not travelled this twenty years; it should be *these* twenty years. I am not recommending *these* kind of indulgencies; it should be *this* kind of indulgencies. Those set of books was a valuable present; *That set*.

NOTE 1. The words means, and amends, may be used both in the singular and plural number. When these words are preceded by *a, an, one, another, this, that, each, every, or either*, they should have a singular construction; in every other situation, the construction should be plural; as, Her approbation was *an amends*, &c. By *that means* they have rendered their duty more difficult; A good character should be employed as a *means* of doing good. In all these instances *means* and *amends* are singular; In the following they are plural: as, *Means* were used, &c. By those *means* he succeeded. He made *amends* for his transgression. The singular mean is only used to signify mediocrity or middle state; as, This is the mean between the two extremes.

NOTE 2. When two persons or things are spoken of in a sentence, and there is occasion to mention them again, for the sake of distinction, *that* is used with reference to the first mentioned, and *this* is referred to the last mentioned person or thing; as, Self love, which is the spring of action in the soul, is ruled by reason: but for *that* (self love) man would be inactive; and, but for *this* (reason) he would be active to no end.

NOTE 3. The pronouns *each, every, either*, and *another*, agree with verbs, nouns, and pronouns in the singular number only; as, Every tree is known by its fruit; The king of Israel, and the king of Judah sat *each* on his throne. *Each* should esteem others better than himself. The wheel killed *another* man. To this note we have the same exception that is applicable in the use of *a* or *an*, viz: When the plural noun conveys a collective idea; as, Every six months. Every hundred years, &c.

Here follow some examples of the violation of this note. Let each esteem others better than *themselves*: It should be *himself*. In proportion as *either* of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect: it should be *is* wanting. It is observable, that every one of the letters *bear* date after his banishment, and *contain* a complete narrative of all his story afterwards; it ought to be, *bears*, and, *They contain*.

*Either* is sometimes improperly used instead of *each*; as, "The king of Israel and Jehosaphat the king of Judah, sat *either* of them on his throne;" It should be *each*.

## II. ADJECTIVES.

NOTE 4. Great care should be taken, in the use of qualifying words, not to use adjectives for adverbs; nor on the contrary, adverbs for adjectives. Any word used to qualify a noun or pronoun should be an adjective; but any word used to qualify a verb, participle, or adjective, must be an adverb.

A few examples of erroneous construction, in these respects, will serve to put you on your guard.

He behaved himself conformable to that great example; it should be *conformably*. I can never think so very *mean* of him; *meanly*. He describes this river agreeable to the common reading; *agreeably*. Thy exceeding great reward. When *exceeding* is used with a word ending in *ly*, it has its participial ending; but when the other word has no *ly*, exceeding must have this ending; as, *exceedingly* great, *exceedingly* amiable; *exceeding* clearly, *exceeding* forcibly, &c. He acted in this business *bolder* than was expected; it should be *more boldly*. They behaved the *noblest* because they were disinterested; *the most nobly*. The study of Syntax should be previously to that of punctuation; it should be *previous* to qualify *study*.

*Such* is sometimes improperly used instead of *so*; as, I never before saw such large trees; it should be, trees *so large*. He was such an extravagant youth; *so extravagant*.

NOTE 5. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided; such as, A worsen conduct; On lesser hopes; The most straitest sect; A more superior work. They should be: worse conduct; less hopes; the straitest sect; a superior work.

NOTE 6. Adjectives which have in themselves a superlative signification, should not, generally, have a comparative or superlative form superadded; as, Chief, right, extreme, perfect, &c. These words are sometimes used, as follows; He claims admission to the *chiefest* offices; A method of attaining the *rightest* and greatest happiness; Soothed my mind into the *most perfect* tranquility. This application of these words is deemed incorrect, and should be avoided.

NOTE 7. The degrees of comparison are often applied improperly. A few examples of this kind follow: This noble nation hath, of all others, admitted *fewer* corruptions. The word *fewer* is here construed as if it were the superlative; It should be: This noble nation hath admitted fewer corruptions than any other. When two things are compared the comparative degree should be used; but when three things are compared



the superlative applies; as, *This is the weaker of the two; the weakest of the three.* The best of any other man, is an improper expression, it should be, the best of men.

NOTE 8. In some cases it produces harshness to separate the adjective from its noun, even by a word which modifies its meaning, and makes but one sense with it; as, A large *enough* number truly; it should be: A number large enough. The lower sort of people are good enough judges of one not far distant from them; *judges good enough.*

### *Remarks on the position of Adjectives, &c.*

The adjective is usually placed before its noun; as, A *generous* man; How *amiable* a woman! It is, however, frequently placed after the noun and sometimes at some distance from it. The following are some of the instances in which it follows the noun.

1st. When something depends upon the adjective, and when it adds to the harmony of the expression; as, A man *generous* to his enemies; Feed me with food *convenient* for me; A body of troops fifty thousand *strong*: The torrent tumbling through rocks *abrupt*.

2d. When the adjective takes the emphasis; as, Alexander the *great*; Lewis the *bold*; Goodness *infinite*; Wisdom *unsearchable*.

3d. When several adjectives belong to the same noun, and the qualities are what we wish particularly to dwell upon; as, A man *just, wise, and charitable*; A woman *modest, sensible, and virtuous*.

4th. When the adjective takes the emphasis, and is preceded by an adverb; as, A boy regularly *studious*; A girl unaffectedly *modest*.

5th. When the verb to be, in any of its forms, is used, the adjective may either precede or follow the noun, as will most conduce to harmony and variety; as, The man is *happy*, or, *happy* is the man who makes virtue his choice.

6th. When the adjective expresses a quality produced by an active verb; as, Vanity often renders its possessor *despicable*. If the sentence be exclamatory the adjective generally precedes the noun; as, How *despicable* does vanity render its possessor!

There is sometimes great beauty, as well as force, in placing the adjective before the verb to be and the noun immediately after it; as, *Great* is the Lord! *Just and true* are thy ways thou king of saints! Sometimes the word *all* is emphatically placed after a number of particulars comprehended under it; as, Ambition, interest, honor, *all* concurred.

Nouns frequently admit of several adjectives, each showing a distinct quality; as, A *learned, pious, judicious, afflicted, old* man.

An adjective with an article before it, without a noun expressed, generally, has the construction of a noun; as, A tale, perhaps, which the *idle* have invented, the *inquisitive* have listened to, and the *credulous* have propagated, supplies them with materials of confident assertion.

A noun placed before another noun to show its use, the material of which it is formed, or its manner of application, becomes an adjective; as, *Gold* watch, *corn* mill, *meadow* ground, *hemp* land, *iron* mortar.

An adjective, preceded by a preposition without a noun following, is sometimes considered an adverbial phrase; as, *In* general, *in* particular, that is, *generally*, *particularly*. Nouns are sometimes used in the same manner; as, *In* haste, that is, *hastily*.

#### RULE IX. PART 1ST.

The article *a* or *an*, is prefixed to nouns in the singular number only, individually or collectively; as, *A* garden, *a* book, *an* eagle, *an* ox, *an* honest man.

#### PART 2ND.

The definite article *the*, may be prefixed to nouns either of the singular or plural number; as, *The* man, *the* men; *the* book, *the* books; *the* ox, *the* oxen.

The articles do not apply to nouns denoting the different virtues, vices, sciences, arts, metals, minerals, herbs, passions, &c. When applied to nouns, you should be careful to use them correctly; as, *Gold* is corrupting; *the* sea is green; *a* lion is bold; *an* apple, &c.

The nature of both the articles is to limit the noun to which they are applied. *A* determines it to be *one* of the kind, but does not determine which; *the* determines which it is, or of many which they are. Hence *a* is called *indefinite*, and *the* is called *definite*.

The following example illustrates the use of the articles and the force of a noun when not limited by an article: "*Man* was made for society, and ought to extend his good will to *all men*; but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the men*, with whom he has the most frequent intercourse; and enter into a still closer union with *the man* whose temper and disposition suit best with his own."

Learners are apt either entirely to neglect the examples given for their information, or to pass over them in a light and thoughtless manner, as things of little moment. I trust this will not be the case with you; for your progress in the knowledge of this important science, will depend much, *very much*, on a close and thoughtful investigation of examples, given to elucidate the rules and notes. The foregoing example, if examined with attention, will, more clearly, show you the uses of the articles, than a whole page of instructions would do without examples.

I will now give you a few examples of the wrong use of the articles, lest you should think that they are of little use in language, because they are *little* words. This would be to think erroneously. "And I prosecuted this way unto *the* death." Here by the use of *the* we are led to

suppose some particular kind of death is meant; but this was not the Apostle's meaning. It should be *unto death*, without an article, that is, death of any kind. "When he, the spirit of truth, is come, he shall guide you into *all* truth." This would mean truth of every kind, *Mathematical, Grammatical, Astronomical, Geographical*, as well as Spiritual truth. But this is not the meaning of the passage. It should be, into all *the* truth; that is, evangelical truth. "The Almighty hath given reason to a man, to be a light unto him." This would imply that reason was given to one only; but remove the article *a* and you will have the true meaning: *to man*; that is, to mankind. "This day is salvation come to this house, for as much as he also is *the* son of Abraham." It should be *a* son, &c.

NOTE 1. A nice distinction of the sense is sometimes made by the use or omission of the article *a*. If I say he behaved with *a* little reverence; my meaning is positive. If I say he behaved with little reverence; my meaning is negative. By the former I rather praise a person, by the latter I dispraise him. If I say there were *a* few men with him, I evidently intend to make the most of the number. But if I say there were few men with him, I speak diminutively of them.

NOTE 2. We generally apply the article to the former of two nouns in the same construction; as, There were many hours both of the night and day, &c. Some would write of the night and of the day, &c. repeating both the preposition and article. The former manner appears most correct.

NOTE 3. In common conversation, and familiar style, we frequently omit articles, which might, with propriety, be inserted in writing, especially in a grave style. "At worst, time might be gained by this expedient." At *the* worst would have been better.

#### RULE X.

A noun or pronoun signifying possession, is governed by the noun which it possesses; as, *My father's house: Man's happiness; Virtue's reward.*

When two or more nouns or pronouns mean the same thing, they are put by apposition, in the *same* case; as, George, King of Great Britain, elector of Hanover. Paul the apostle. Joram, King of Israel.

*Of* is not always a *possessive* preposition. When the expression can be changed into the regular possessive form, it is a possessive; when this cannot be done, it is not; as, *The reward of virtue*, can be converted into the regular possessive, *Virtue's reward*; but the expression, *a crown of Gold*, cannot. It would be improper to say *gold's crown*.

NOTE 1. If several nouns in the possessive case come together, the apostrophe with *s* is annexed to the last word, and understood to the

others; as, This was my father, mother, and uncle's advice. But, when the article is repeated before the several nouns, the possessive sign should be attached to each; as, "I had the physician's, the surgeon's, and the apothecary's assistance."

NOTE 2. Poets frequently omit the possessive *s* retaining only the apostrophe, when it would not be admissible in writers of prose; as, "The wrath of Peleus' son." When the singular noun ends in *ss*, or the plural in *s*, the other *s* is omitted on account of the hissing sound it would produce.

NOTE 3. Little explanatory circumstances, placed between the possessive case and the noun possessed, are peculiarly awkward; as, "She began to extol the farmer's, *as she called him*, excellent understanding." It should be, the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him.

NOTE 4. When a sentence consists of terms signifying a name and an office, or any expressions by which one part is descriptive or explanatory of the other, there is some diversity in the application of the possessive sign. Some would say; I left the parcel at Smith's, the bookseller and stationer; others, at Smith the bookseller's and stationer's; and others, at Smith's, the bookseller's and stationer's. It is proper to add the sign to Smith, as in the first example; and understand it to the others.

We have many expressions of this kind, which, though strenuously contended for as correct, do not, in fact, communicate the idea intended; as, 'The Bishop of Landaff's excellent book. Does the book belong to the bishop, or to Landaff? What nonsense to say the Governor of Kentucky's house; the Governor of Ohio's horse. This mode of expression literally represents the house as belonging to Kentucky, and the horse, to Ohio. It would at least be better to give the sentence a different form, and say, 'The house of the Governor of Kentucky, &c.

When words in apposition follow each other in quick succession, it is most agreeable to our idiom to give the possessive sign to the last; as, For David my servant's sake; Give me John the Baptist's head; Paul the Apostle's advice. But when the member is long, and the governing word not expressed, the sign should be given to the first, and understood to the others; as, I reside at Lord Stormont's, my old patron and benefactor.

NOTE 5. The English possessive case has often an unpleasant sound: so that we often make use of a circumlocution in expressing it. For want of this the following sentence is a very awkward one; My friend's wife's sister: It should be, the sister of my friend's wife, or, my friend's sister-in-law. In the following sentences, the exuberant use of the preposition *of* has a bad effect, both on the harmony and utterance; The

severity of the distress of the king's son touched the nation. Of some of the books of each of these classes of literature, a catalogue will be given at the end of the work. This carelessness in writing is wholly inexcusable. I trust you will avoid it.

NOTE 6. In some cases good writers use both the possessive sign, and the possessive preposition *of*; as, The lightning rod was a discovery of Franklin's; The best English Grammar ever published was a production of Murray's: but this would imply that it was the only production of his, which is not a fact.

NOTE 7. When an entire clause of a sentence, beginning with a present or compound perfect participle, is used as one name, or to express one idea or circumstance, the noun on which it depends should be in the possessive case; as, "What is the reason of this *person's dismissing* his servant so hastily." "*James's having been writing* a long time, had wearied him." "Much will depend on the *pupil's composing*, but more on *his reading* frequently. In the preceding examples the participles, *dismissing*, *having been writing*, and *composing*, evidently govern the nouns which precede them in the possessive case, and the participle *dismissing* governs the noun *servant*, in the objective case. The following sentence from Cicero, is of the same construction: "He condemned and executed that unfortunate and innocent citizen Publius Gaius Cosanus only for *his having declared* his intention of appealing to his country." From these examples it appears proper to say: that a participle may govern a noun preceding in the possessive case, and a following noun in the objective. Should this rule be found correct, it will save teachers and learners much perplexity in analyzing sentences of similar construction; so much at least as to prevent them from having recourse to the unintelligible term "*Gerundial Participle*."

This principle contravenes our author's second note under his fourteenth rule of Syntax.

#### RULE XI.

Active transitive verbs govern the objective case; as, Truth ennobles *her*; She comforts *me*; They support *us*; Virtue rewards her *followers*.

The case of *nouns* is determined by their position and use in the sentence. The nominative case goes before the verb, and the objective follows it (if transitive) or a preposition; as, "Alexander conquered the Persians." But the pronoun having a proper form for each of those cases, is sometimes, when in the nominative case, placed after the verb, and the objective case before it; as, "Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you." The case of the pronoun is sometimes mistaken in the inverted order of composition, more especially the relative pro-

soon, as will be seen in the following examples: "*Who* should I esteem more than the wise and good;" "Those are the persons *who* he thought true to his interest;" "*Who* should I see the other day but my old friend?" "*Whoever* the court favours:" In all these instances *who* should be *whom*.

*He*, who under all proper circumstances, has the courage to speak truth, choose for thy friend; It should be *him*, governed in the objective case by the verb *choose*.

Verbs which are really neuter are very few. Most authors consider *dream* as a neuter verb. Hence Mr. Murray thinks that in the sentence to dream a dream, the noun and verb both mean the same thing, and, therefore, the noun is not an object of action; but I can see no reason why *dream* should not be a transitive verb as well as *love*, *hate*, *detest*, *admire*, or any other which denotes mental action.

Nouns which signify time, extension, duration, distance, &c. are frequently governed by prepositions understood; as, He lay all night, (i. e. *Through* all the night;) They rode all day (*through*;) We sailed many leagues (*over many*;) He walked the room all night; that is, He walked *in* or *through* the room *through* or *during* all the night; They came here last week, last month, last year; that is, *on* the last week, month, or year.

NOTE 1. Some writers use certain intransitive verbs as if they were transitive, putting an objective case after them, according to the French idiom; as, "Repenting him of his designs;" "The king soon found reason to *repent him* of his design;" "The nearer his successes *approached him* to the crown." These modes of expression may be correct in France, but they certainly contravene the rules of our language, and you should scrupulously avoid them.

NOTE 2. Transitive verbs are sometimes as improperly made intransitive, by the improper intervention of a preposition after them; as, "I must premise *with* three circumstances;" "Those who think to ingratiate *with* him, by calumniating me." In both instances *with* should be omitted.

NOTE 3. The intransitive verb is varied like the transitive, and some writers give it the passive form. This is not only admissible in a few instances, but it appears to be necessary to enable us to convey our ideas with precision: The boy *is grown*, in the passive voice, has a very different signification from, The boy *has grown*, in the active voice. It appears proper to use this form of the verb when the nominative is not an active agent; as, "The time *is come*;" "The boy *is grown*;" "The sun *is risen*." But when the nominative is an active agent in the performance of the action expressed by the verb, this form is manifestly improper. Thus it is as improper to say, The bird *is flown*, as it would be to

say, the boy is run. Both verbs should be in the active voice, *has flown, has run*. *I am come*, is also incorrect, it should be *have come*.

NOTE 4: The verb *to be* in all its forms admits the same case after it as that which next precedes it; as, *I am he* whom they invited; *It* might have been *he*, but *it* could not have been *I*; *It* seems to have been *he* who conducted himself so wisely; *I* took it to be *him*; *I* understood it to have been *them*. The nouns and pronouns which form the case preceding and following the verb to be, must always refer to the same person or thing, and hence may be said to be in apposition. The case following the verb *to be*, in any mode but the infinitive, must be nominative. This verb in the infinitive, may take either an objective or nominative, as the case is which precedes it; as, *I believed it* to be *him*. In this instance *it* is objective case before the verb, hence *him* must be objective case after it. Again: *It* appeared to be *he*; *It* is nominative before the verb, and *he* is nominative after. If you pay attention to this remark you can never be at a loss for the case proper to follow this verb in any construction. I will, however, put down two or three examples of wrong construction, in the case after the verb *to be*, which will serve to put you on your guard. It might have been *him*, but there is no proof of it; *I* was blamed for the transaction, but it could not have been *me*. Recollect, the verb cannot admit an objective case after it, except in the infinitive mode, but the foregoing verbs are in the potential mode, therefore, the case should be nominative. You will be most likely to err in the use of this verb with the relative pronoun who, whom. If you recollect what is said of the position and government of the relative, under Rule VI. and notice the following examples of false construction, you will be enabled to avoid like errors. "She is the person *who* I understood it to have been; *Who* do you think me to be? It should be *whom* in both places, because *it* and *me* are in the objective case before the verb. *Whom* do men say that I am; and *whom* think ye that I am? It should be *who* in both places, because *I* and *ye* are nominative case before the verb.

Passive verbs admit the same case before and after them, when both words refer to, or mean the same thing; as, *He* was called Cesar; *Homer* is styled the prince of poets; *The general* was saluted Emperor, &c.

The verb *becomes* when it signifies comes to be, is neuter, and may take a nominative after it; as, *The boy* becomes, or became a man; *The calf* has become an ox; but when *become* means to beset, to beautify, or adorn, it is transitive and governs the objective case; as, *Virtue* adorns or becomes her votaries; *Humility* becomes youth; *Humility* becomes a churchman rather than ambition.

NOTE 5: The verb *let* is never an auxiliary, for auxiliary verbs have no government of case. *Let* is always a transitive verb, governing a

verb or pronoun in the objective case, and is always followed by a verb in the infinitive mode, without *to* prefixed. The infinitive is sometimes, though rarely understood; as, *Let me proceed*; *Let me alone*, that is, *Let me be alone*; "*Let them alone*, they be blind leaders of the blind;" that is, *Let them be alone*, &c.

### RULE XII.

A verb in the infinitive mode may depend upon a verb, noun, pronoun, adjective, or participle; as, *Cease to do evil*; *Learn to do well*; *He is to perform the labor*; *He is willing to perform the labor*; *He is able to perform the labor*.

To say that any verb governs the infinitive mode, when the sign of that mode is expressed, is to say wrong, for the infinitive is determined by the sign *to* and not by the preceding verb. Hence the infinitive mode cannot be said to be governed by any verbs but the following: The verbs *bid*, *dare*, *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, *help*, *perceive*, *behold*, *observe*, and *find*, and their participles govern the verbs which follow them, in the infinitive mode without the sign *to*; as, *Bid him do it*; *He dares not do it*; *They need not do it*; *He makes them study*; *They see me write*; *They hear me read*; *I feel him move*; *Let him write*; *Help me do it*; *I beheld him move his property*; *Our eye observes the distant planets pass*; *He who implores strength and courage from above, shall find danger and difficulty give way before him*.

I have given you examples in each of the above mentioned verbs, which you will do well to consider attentively, that you may be prepared to analyze sentences of this kind.

NOTE 1. In the following passages, the word *to*, the sign of the infinitive mode, where it is printed in *italic letters*, is improper, and should be omitted. I have observed some satirists *to* use, &c. *To* see so many *to* make so little conscience of so great a sin; "*It* cannot but be a delightful spectacle to God and angels, *to* see a young person, besieged by powerful temptations on every side, *to* acquit himself gloriously, and resolutely *to* hold out against the most violent assault." "*To* behold one in the prime and flower of his age, that is courted by pleasures and honors, by the devil, and all the bewitching vanities of the world, *to* reject all these, and *to* cleave steadfastly to God."

The infinitive mode has much of the nature of a noun, expressing the action itself which the verb signifies, as the participle has the nature of an adjective. Thus the infinitive performs the office of a noun in different cases; in the nominative; as, *To play is pleasant*: in the objective; as, *Boys love to play*. The infinitive mode, in the first of the



foregoing sentences, takes the qualification of the adjective *pleasant*. What is pleasant? To play. This determines most clearly, that the infinitive verb has the nature of a noun.

The infinitive mode is said to be absolute when it takes place of the potential mode and its nominative; as, To confess the truth, I was in fault; To begin with the first, that is, that I may confess or, If I must confess the truth, &c.

### RULE XIII.

In the use of words and phrases which relate to each other in point of time, a due regard to that relation should be observed. Instead of saying the Lord *hath given* and the Lord *hath taken* away, we should put the former verb in the imperfect tense and say; The Lord *gave* and the Lord *hath taken* away; Instead of I *remember* the family more than twenty years, it should be, I *have remembered* the family more than twenty years.

The imperfect tense marks past time indefinite, but the perfect denotes past time, and also takes in the present; hence in the former example the giving should be expressed in the imperfect tense, to represent it as prior to the taking. In the latter example the remembrance commenced more than twenty years since, and continues to the present time, the perfect should, therefore, be used, and not the present.

All verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, should be followed by the present tense of the infinitive mode, and not by the perfect; The last week I intended to write, is a proper expression, because the infinitive verb marks its relative time from the time of the governing verb. To say, intended to have written, would make the writing prior to the intention of writing, which is a manifest solecism.

The following examples are incorrect with regard to the relation to time. History painters would have found it difficult to *have invented* such a species of beings; it should be *to invent*. On the morrow because he *could have known*, the certainty, wherefore he was accused of the Jews, he loosed him; because *he would know*, or rather *being desirous to know*.

It would be difficult, perhaps impossible, to lay down rules to reach every possible case of this kind. The following general one will, however, be found useful. Observe what the sense requires, in order to a correct expression of your ideas.

The following is a species of familiar sentence that is used erroneously by most persons: I had rather walk; I had rather stand, &c. That you may see the impropriety the more clearly, remove the word *rather*, and place the auxiliary and verb together, and say, I had walk; I had ride; Recollect, the intervention of an adverb does not in the least impair the connexion existing between the auxiliary and principal verb. It should be, I would rather walk; I would rather ride. As a correct use of language, in familiar conversation, as well as in writing, is a desirable object, I trust you will pay attention to the foregoing observations, and endeavor to avoid improper modes of expression, even in your hours of relaxation and amusement.

NOTE 1. It is proper to observe, that verbs of the infinitive mode in the following form; to write, to be writing, and to be written, always denote something *contemporary* with the governing verb, or *subsequent* to it; but when verbs of this mode are expressed as follows: to have been writing, to have been written, and to have been writter, they always denote something *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb. If this remark be properly understood and attended to, you will be in little danger of committing errors in the use of the infinitive verb.

*Ought* is used both in the present and imperfect tenses of the indicative mode, without any variation to mark its time. When you use this verb, you must notice what tense of the infinitive mode follows it, for it is always followed by a verb in that mode. When the following infinitive is in the present tense, *ought* is in the present tense; but when the infinitive is in the perfect tense, *ought* is in the *imperfect*. This is the only way to determine the tense of *ought*; as, These ought ye to have done; He ought to go. Some writers assert that verbs in the infinitive mode have no tenses, no relative distinctions of present, past, and future time. But this assertion is inconsistent with just grammatical views of the subject. The association of these verbs with others in all the tenses, is no proof of their having no peculiar time of their own. Whatever period the governing verb may assume, whether present, past, or future, the governing, or dependent verb always respects that period, and its time is calculated from it. The time of the infinitive may be before, after, or the same with the governing verb, as the thing specified by the infinitive, is supposed to be before, after, or present with, the thing denoted by the governing verb. Hence tenses are, with great propriety, assigned to the infinitive mode.

## RULE XIV.

Participles have the same government as the verbs have from which they are derived; as, I am weary with *hearing* him; She is *instructing* us; The tutor is *admonishing* Charles.

In the first of the preceding example, *with* shows the relation between the adjective weary, and the participle hearing, and has no government of case, because participles have no case when used in their verbal capacity; and hearing is used in that capacity in this case, because it governs him in the same manner that the verb hear would do, in a similar situation.

NOTE 1. Participles are sometimes governed by the article: for the present participle with an article before it, becomes a noun, and must have the preposition *of* after it; as, These are the rules of grammar, by the observing of which you will avoid mistakes. When either the preposition or article is used, *both* must be used; it would be improper to say, By avoiding of which, or by *the* avoiding which. But the sentence would be correct, were both omitted; as, By avoiding which. This was a betraying of the trust reposed in him, is a correct mode of expression; but it would be improper if either the article or the preposition were omitted, unless both were; as, This was betraying the trust, &c.

This rule arises from the nature and idiom of our language, and from no plain a principle as any on which it is founded; namely, a word that has the article before it, and the possessive preposition *of* after it, must be a noun. It is the participial termination of this sort of words that is apt to deceive us, and make us treat them as if they were of an amphibious species, partly nouns and partly verbs.

Many modern teachers, and some of considerable celebrity, have run into the error censured in the sentence preceding. They consider many words of a participial termination, as possessing so much of the nature of the noun, as to submit to the government of the preposition in the objective case, and so much of the nature of the verb, as to govern a following noun or pronoun in the objective case. This is certainly destroying one of the first principles of Etymology, the classification of words into different kinds, according to their construction and use in the language. To which class would these *participious* belong? Not to nouns, for they do not govern the objective case: Not to verbs, for they have no case: Not to participles, for they partake of the nature of verbs and adjectives, but not of nouns. What then shall we do with them? Call them *ouns*, neither nouns nor verbs? The error lies in believing, that it is necessary to the nature of a preposition, that it have a government of case, which is an erroneous opinion, as will be shown under Rule XVII.

A phrase, in which the article precedes the participle and the possessive preposition follows, will not, in every instance, convey the same meaning as would be conveyed by the participle without the article and preposition. "He expressed the pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher," implies that his pleasure was derived from the words of the philosopher. But, He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher, implies that his pleasure was derived from some unmentioned source, but the philosopher heard him express that pleasure. Therefore, when you are disposed to vary your mode of expression, you should first consider whether the sentiments they express will be perfectly similar.

NOTE 2. It is the opinion of some, that when the participle is preceded by a noun or pronoun, in the possessive case, it should be followed by the preposition *of*. But this opinion appears not to be established by custom or good usage. Perhaps it has been owing to the harshness of sound produced by this species of composition, that has induced writers and speakers to omit the preposition, and thus place the participle in such a position in the sentence, that it governs a preceding possessive case, and a following objective case. The following examples, with the preposition following the participle, will enable you to discover the harshness of sound alluded to. Much will depend on his observing *of* the rule, and error will be the consequence of his neglecting *of* it. Our best modern writers and speakers, and many ancient authors omit the preposition, in sentences like the preceding, and it will, probably, soon become obsolete.

We sometimes meet with expressions like the following: "*In forming of* his sentences, he was very exact;" "*From calling of* names, he proceeded to blows." But this is incorrect language, for prepositions do not, like articles, convert the participle itself into the nature of a noun.

NOTE 3. As the perfect participle and imperfect tense of many irregular verbs, are different in their form, care must be taken that they be not used the one for the other. It is frequently said he *begun*, for, he *began*; he *run*, for he *ran*; he *drunk*, for he *drank*; the participle being here used instead of the imperfect tense. But it is more frequently the case that the imperfect tense is erroneously used instead of the perfect participle; as, I had *wrote*, for I had *written*; He was *chose*, for was *chosen*; I have *eat*, *sat*, *en*; He would have *spoke*, *spoken*; See the observations under irregular verbs.

#### RULE XV.

Adverbs are used to qualify verbs, participles, and adjectives; and they require an appropriate situation in the sentence. They are generally placed after verbs in the simple tenses; between the auxiliary and

the verb in the compound tenses: and when applied to adjectives they should always be placed before them; as, "He made a *very sensible* discourse; he spoke *unaffectedly* and *forcibly*, and *was attentively* *heard* by the whole assembly."

The following examples of the wrong position of adverbs will serve to illustrate the rule, and put you on your guard against similar errors: He must not expect to find study *agreeable* always; It should be, *always agreeable*. Dissertations on the prophecies which have remarkably been fulfilled, which have been *remarkably fulfilled*. Instead of looking contemptuously down on the crooked in mind or body, we should look, up *thankfully* to God, who made us better; It should be, looking *down contemptuously*; should *thankfully* look up, &c. 'If thou art blessed naturally with a good memory, continually exercise it; It should be, If thou art *naturally* blessed, &c. exercise it *continually*; He has *generally* been reckoned an honest man; He has *been generally* reckoned, &c.

It appears difficult to give precise rules for placing the adverb in every species of composition. But the general rule: Observe what the sense, and the harmony of language requires, together with your own good sense and correct taste, improved by reading good authors, will, I trust, enable you to avoid errors.

The adverb *there* is often used as an expletive, or as a word which adds nothing to the sense. When so used, the verb is placed immediately after the adverb, and the nominative case follows the verb; as, There is a person at the door; There are some thieves in the house; There are two or three of us who spend our time very agreeably. In sentences like the foregoing, *there* is not an adverb of place; when it is, it follows the nominative and verb; as, The man stands *there*; unless the order of the sentence is inverted; as, There was he slain.

NOTE 1. The adverb *never* generally precedes the verb; as, I never was there; He never comes at a proper time. When *never* is used with a compound tense, it may be placed either before or after the auxiliary; as, He was never seen to smile from that time; or, He never was seen, &c. *Never* is sometimes improperly used instead of *ever*; as, Ask me *never* so much dexterity and gift; Charm he *never* so wisely: *ever*, in both places, would be correct.

NOTE 2. The adverb *where* is often improperly used instead of a relative pronoun and preposition; as, "They framed a protestation, *where* they repeated all their former claims;" It should be, *in which* they repeated, &c. 'The king was still determined to run forward, in the course *where* he was, by his precipitate career, too fatally advanced;" It should be, *in which* he had already, &c. This manner of constructing the ad-

verb *where*, is too gross an error, to be imitated by any one who wishes to write or speak accurately.

The adverbs *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, mean from this place, from that place, and from what place, and imply a preposition, therefore, it is improper to use a preposition with them and say, from *hence*, from *thence*, from *whence*. These adverbs should stand without the preposition: Thus: *Hence* it may be premised; *Whence* arises his grief! *Thence* he started for Kentucky, &c.

The adverbs *here*, *there*, *where*, should not be used after verbs implying motion, instead of, *hence*, *thence*, *whence*. Thus it is improper to say, He came *here* hastily; It should be, he came *hither*, &c. But after the neuter verb *be*, *here*, *there*, and *where* should be used; as, He was *here* this morning; We have been *there* to day, &c.

NOTE, 3. We have some examples of adverbs being used for nouns; In 1687 he erected it into a community of regulars, since *when* it has begun to increase in those countries as a religious order; It should be, since *which time* it has begun, &c. A little while and ye shall not see me: That is; *In a short time* ye shall, &c. This use of the adverb should be scrupulously avoided.

#### RULE XVI.

Two negatives, in English, destroy one another; or they amount to an affirmation; as, Nor did they not perceive him; that is, they did perceive him; His language, though inelegant, is not ungrammatical, that is, Though his language is *not* elegant, yet it is grammatical. When one of the negatives is joined to another word as in the last example, it forms a pleasing variety in language; and, when sparingly and judiciously used, adds to its harmony.

Many speakers and some writers employ two negatives when they design to express an affirmation; by which their language communicates ideas directly opposite to what they intend. A few examples are subjoined. I cannot by no means, allow him what his argument must prove. It should be, I can by no means, or, I can *not* by any means, &c. Nor is danger ever apprehended in such governments, no more than we commonly apprehend danger from thunder or earthquakes; It should be, *any* more. In familiar conversation this rule is very frequently violated, and you will do well to notice your own practice in this respect.

## RULE XVII.

Prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case; as, I have heard a good character of *her*; *From him* that is needy, turn not away; A word to the wise is sufficient *for them*; We may be good and happy *without riches*.

NOTE 1. Our language is much prone, especially in familiar style, to place the preposition, used with a relative pronoun, at the end of the sentence, which causes the case of the relative to be mistaken; as, *Who did you come with? Who did you reside with? Who dost thou ask for?* If the preposition were restored to its proper place, this error would be avoided: Thus, *With whom did you come? With whom did you reside? For whom dost thou ask?* The prepositions *to* and *for* are often understood, chiefly before the pronouns; as, Give *me* the book, Get *me* some paper; that is, *to me, for me*. This is an omission to which our language is much prone.

NOTE 2. Some writers separate the preposition from its noun, in order to connect different prepositions with the same noun; as, 'I suppose the Zodiac and planets to be efficient *of*, and antecedent *to* themselves. This is called splitting particles, and is inadmissible either in familiar or grave style.

NOTE 3. Different relations, and different senses, must be expressed by different prepositions, though in conjunction with the same verb or adjective: Thus, we say, to converse *with* a person *upon* a subject, *in* a house, &c. We also say: We are disappointed *of* a thing when we cannot get it; and disappointed *in* a thing when we have it, and find it does not answer our purpose.

When prepositions are subjoined to nouns, they are generally the same that are subjoined to the verbs from which the nouns are derived; as, A compliance *with*; To comply *with*, &c.

NOTE 4. As an appropriate and accurate use of the preposition is of great importance in the use of language, a number of examples of the improper application of this part of speech is subjoined.

First: *Of*—"He is resolved of going to the Persian court;" *on* going. "He was totally dependent of the Papal crown;" *dependent on*. "He was eager of recommending it to his fellow citizens;" *in recommending it*. *Of*, is, by some writers, omitted after *worthy*; as, It is worthy observation. This is an error, and should be avoided, "The rain hath been falling of a long time;" falling a long time, or, for a long time." "He found the greatest difficulty of writing;" *in writing*. "It might have given me a greater taste of its antiquities. A taste of a thing implies

actual enjoyment; but a taste *for* it implies only a capacity for enjoyment. It should, therefore, have been a greater taste *for* its antiquities.

Secondly: *To* and *for*. "You have bestowed your favors to the most deserving persons;" *on the most deserving*; &c. He accused the ministers for betraying the Dutch; *of betraying*. His abhorrence to that superstitious figure; *abhorrence of*. The English were a very different people then to what they are at present; *from* what, &c. It was perfectly in compliance to some persons; in compliance *with*, &c.

*For further examples, see the exercises, Rule XVII.*

The preposition *among* signifies several persons or things, and cannot properly be used in conjunction with the distributive pronouns, *each*, *every*, *either*, nor with a singular noun. The opinion seems to gain ground among every body, is an improper expression. It should be *with* every body.

NOTE 5. The preposition *to* is made use of before nouns of place when they follow active intransitive verbs or participles, derived from those verbs; as, He went *to* Frankfort; I saw them going *to* the south. But the preposition *at* is used after the verb *to be*; as, He was *at* Frankfort; I shall be *at* home to-morrow. The preposition *in* is placed before cities and large towns, counties, and states, when residence is denoted; as, He lives *in* Lexington, *in* Versailles, &c. But before places at a distance, *at* is frequently employed; as, He lives *at* Boston, *at* New York, *at* Montpelier, &c. We have some words of participial termination, which are used as prepositions, such as, touching, respecting, during, concerning. The word according, when followed by *to* or *with*, is generally considered a compound preposition; as, *According to* my promise, I now write. But when according is followed by *as*, it is a compound conjunction; as, He follows the road of duty *according as* the word of God, and the voice of conscience points it out.

Some authors consider notwithstanding, a preposition. This appears to be using an unwarrantable licence with the words of our language, for putting a participle out of its natural order does not change its nature. If those sentences were critically examined, in which this word is supposed to perform the office of a preposition, it would be found that the noun, instead of submitting to the government of the preposition in the objective case, is actually in the nominative case absolute, put before the participle withstanding. The coalescence of the adverb *not* does not change the meaning or use of the participle.

Perhaps it may be requisite, before the close of the remarks under this rule, to advert again to that fruitful source of error, the preposition associated with the participle. It is, indeed, not only a source of error, but to many it is a source of much perplexity. Some writers, as C. Alexander, have had recourse to the latin gerund, and called it a gerundial participle, without giving us to understand what is the use of such a partici-



ple. Others have considered it a substantive phrase, converting a participle and adverb into a noun, while others have made a kind of Process of the participle, causing it to change forms more speedily, I trow, than even that necromancer was ever able to do, in all his fabled activity. They make it a noun in the objective case, and with the next breath, an active transitive verb. All these difficulties will vanish at once, if we allow the preposition to perform its natural office in the sentence and no more.

When the preposition precedes a word to which case belongs, it governs that word in the objective case; but when it precedes a word to which case does not appertain, it shows relation, and has no reference to an objective case, any more than an intransitive verb. These remarks are nearly a repetition of what has been said on the subject in a previous part of the work, and are, perhaps, sufficient.

#### RULE XVIII.

Conjunctions are used to connect verbs of like modes and tenses, and nouns and pronouns in the same case; as, "Candor is *to be approved* and practised;" If thou sincerely *desire* and earnestly *pursue* virtue, she *will* assuredly *be found* by thee, and *prove* a rich reward. The master taught *her* and *me* to write. *He* and *she* were school fellows.

It will be proper here to inform you that conjunctions are never used to connect different parts of speech, as a noun and verb, an adverb and adjective, &c. nor are they used to connect verbs and participles. The following sentence is, therefore, inaccurate. To deride the miseries of the unhappy is inhuman, and *wanting* compassion towards them is unchristian. In this sentence the infinitive *to deride* and the participle *wanting* are connected by *and*, which is inadmissible. It should be, *and to want*, &c. The following examples are violations of the preceding rule. The parliament addressed the king, and has been prorogued the same day; *and was prorogued*. His wealth and him soon bid adieu to each other; His wealth and *he*. He entreated us, my brother and I, to live harmoniously; my brother and *me*. My sister and her were on good terms; my sister and *she*.

NOTE 1. Conjunctions are, indeed, frequently made to connect different modes and tenses of verbs; but in this instance, the nominative ought to be repeated, which is not necessary, when there is no change in the mode and tense. It is proper to say, He *lives* temperately, and he *should live* temperately; He may return, but he *will* not tarry. But it would be improper to use these sentences in the following form. He *lives* temperately, and *should live* temperately; He may return, but *will not* tarry. When in the progress of a sentence, we pass from an affirmative

to a negative, or from a negative to an affirmative, or when we change from one *mode* of expression to another, the nominative should be resumed; as, He is rich, but he is not respectable; He is not rich, but he is respectable.

## RULE XIX.

The conjunctions if, though, unless, except, whether, and lest, generally require the subjunctive mode after them, because they generally imply contingency or doubt; as, If I *were* to write, he would not regard it; He will not be pardoned unless he *repent*.

Other conjunctions that are of a positive and absolute nature, are usually followed by the indicative mode; as, He is healthy, *because* he is temperate; *As* virtue advances, so vice recedes.

The following example may serve to illustrate the distinction between the indicative and subjunctive modes: "Though he *were* divinely inspired, and spoke, therefore, as the oracles of God, with supreme authority; though he *were* endowed with supernatural powers, and could, therefore, have confirmed the truth of what he uttered, by miracles: yet in compliance with the way in which human nature and reasonable creatures are usually wrought upon, he reasoned."

That our Saviour was divinely inspired and endowed with supernatural powers, are positions that are here taken for granted, as not admitting the least doubt, therefore, the verbs should have been in the indicative mode; thus, Though he *was* divinely inspired; Though he *was* endowed, &c. You will notice that the conjunction *though* is a corresponding conjunction in the above instances, corresponding with *yet*. See Note 9 under this rule.

The following is another example of the same nature. Though he *were* a son, yet learned he obedience; It should be, though he *were*, &c.

☞ The following construction of the verb *to be*, in the subjunctive form, is not in accordance with any adopted rule; yet it bears the sanction of good authority, as the quotations will manifest. "It *were* credulity not charity to conclude," &c. Blair. "My faith *were* form, my eloquence *were* noise,"—"Acymbal's sound *were* better," &c. Pryor. "It *were* perpetually to unsettle the language," &c. "The conjunction *were* better expressed," &c. Murray. "It *were* long, too long to tell, &c. Couper. "It *were* as absurd to write a panegyric," &c. Blair. In the foregoing examples the conjunctive form of the verb is used, without any conjunction, either expressed or implied; and without any doubt or contingency. The meaning is fully potential, as will appear by changing the form of the verb; thus, It *would be* credulity, &c.; My faith

*would be* form, my eloquence *would be* noise, &c.; Acymbal's sound *would be* better, &c.; It *would be* perpetually, &c.; The conjunction *would be*, &c.; It *would be* long, &c.; It *would be* as absurd, &c. By admitting this construction of the verb *to be*, we acquire a pleasing variety, without danger of misunderstanding the sense of the author. It appears, therefore, proper to adopt the following rule:

The verb *to be* may be used in the imperfect tense of the subjunctive mode, having a potential signification.

NOTE 1. *Lest* and *that*, annexed to a command, preceding, necessarily require the subjunctive mode; as, Love not sleep, *lest thou come* to poverty. Reprove not a scorner *lest he hate* thee; Take heed *that thou speak* not to Jacob.

*If* with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mode; as, *If he do but touch* the hills they shall smoke. *If he be but* discreet, he will succeed. *But* is used adverbially in these sentences, for it can be changed into *only* without impairing the sense; thus, *If he only touch*, &c. *If he only be*, &c. When futurity is not implied, the subjunctive mode retains the indicative form; as, *If in this expression he does but jest*, no offence should be taken.

NOTE 2. The conjunction *that* seldom governs the subjunctive mode. In the following examples, it is impropely followed by the subjunctive, instead of the indicative; So much she dreaded his tyranny, *that the* fate of her friend she *dare* not lament. He reasoned so artfully, *that* his friends would listen and think *that he were* not wrong.

NOTE 2. The same conjunction governing both the indicative and subjunctive modes, in the same sentence, and in the same circumstances, seems to be a great impropriety; as in these instances. *If there be* but one body of legislators, it is no better than a tyranny; *if there are* only two, there will want a casting voice. *If a man have* a hundred sheep, and one of them *is* gone astray, &c.

NOTE 4. Almost all the irregularities, in the construction of any language, have arisen from the ellipsis of some words which were originally inserted in the sentence and made it regular; and it is probable, that this has been the case with respect to the conjunctive form of words now in use, which will appear from the following examples: We shall undertake him though he *run*; that is, though he *should run*. Unless he *act* prudently, he will not accomplish his end; Unless he *shall act*, &c. *If he succeed* and *attain* his end he will not be the happier for it. *If he shall succeed* and *shall attain*, &c.

That part of the verb which grammarians call the present tense of the subjunctive mode, has a future signification. This is effected by varying the terminations of the second and third persons singular of the indicative, as will be seen in the following examples: *If thou prosper*, thou

shouldst be thankful. The indicative form would be, *If thou prosperest, &c.* From this it appears that when both contingency and futurity are denoted, the verb should have the conjunctive termination; but when contingency is denoted without futurity, the verb should have the indicative form. *See conjugation of the verb learn.*

NOTE 5. The auxiliaries in the compound tenses of the subjunctive mode, have the same form, as in the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus it is proper to say, *If thou hast learned; If he has learned, &c.* and not, *If thou have learned; If he have learned, &c.*

NOTE 6. The above remark applies to the pluperfect and the two future tenses of the subjunctive: *If thou hadst been; If thou shalt or will go, &c.* *If thou shalt have gone, &c.* not, *If thou had been; If thou shall or will.*

NOTE 7. The second person singular of the subjunctive mode imperfect tense, should not vary from the indicative form. *If thou loved him, is improper, it should be, If thou lovedst him. If thou did receive it, is improper, it should be, If thou didst receive it, &c.*

NOTE 8. The potential mode, like the indicative, is changed into the subjunctive by the prefix of a conjunction implying doubt, and when so used, the auxiliaries retain their original form. *If thou mayest or canst go; Though thou mightst live, &c.*

NOTE 9. Some conjunctions have corresponding conjunctions belonging to them, so that in the subsequent member of the sentence, the latter conjunction answers to the former; as, . . .

1st. *Though, yet, nevertheless;* as, *Though* he was rich, *yet* for our sakes he became poor.

2d. *Whether, or;* as, *Whether* he will go *or* not, I cannot tell.

3d. *Either, or;* as, I will *either* send it *or* bring it myself.

4th. *Neither, nor;* as, *Neither* thou *nor* I am able to compass it.

5th. *As, as;* expressing a comparison of equality; as, She is *as* amiable *as* her sister.

6th. *As, so;* expressing a comparison of equality; as, *As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be.

7th. *As, so;* expressing a comparison of quality; as, *As* the one dieth, *so* dieth the other.

8th. *So, as,* with a verb expressing a comparison of equality; as, To see thy glory *so as* I have seen thee in the sanctuary.

9th. *So, as,* with a negative and an adjective expressing a comparison of quality; as, Pompey was not *so* great a man *as* Cæsar.

10th. *So, that,* expressing a consequence; as, He was *so* fatigued *that* he could scarcely move.

11th. *Both, and,* implying that the two objects, though connected by

a copulative, are, in some degree, separately considered; as, I saw *both* him *and* the shopman.

The conjunctions *or* and *nor* may often be used, with nearly equal propriety. The king, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous, *nor* decisive, assented to the measure: *or* would probably have been better in this place, but in general *nor* repeats the negation in the former part of the sentence, and, therefore, gives more emphasis to the expression.

NOTE 10. Conjunctions are often improperly used, both singly and in pairs. A few examples of erroneous construction in this respect are here given. The relations are so uncertain, as that they require a great deal of examination; It should be, *that* they require, *so* being superfluous. There was no man so sanguine, who did not apprehend some ill consequences; It should be, so sanguine *as* not to apprehend. To trust in him is no more but to acknowledge his power; *More* always requires to be followed by *than*; It should be, *no more than* to acknowledge, &c. If he were truly that scarecrow, as he is now commonly painted; *Such a scarecrow*, &c.

The conjunction which governs the subjunctive mode, is sometimes omitted, and the verb or auxiliary put in its place; as, *Had* he been there he would have conquered. *Were* there no difference, there would be no choice; *If he had*, &c. *If there were no difference*, &c. This is called the conjunctive form of the verb; it frequently gives a pleasing variety to expression.

Some writers use a double conjunctive in the different members of the same sentence; as, *Had* he done this, he *had* escaped; but as the verb in the subsequent member, should evidently have a potential signification, this mode of expression leads to obscurity, and should be avoided.

#### RULE XX.

In comparative sentences the noun following *than* or *as*, is nominative to a verb expressed or understood, or in the objective case and governed by a verb or preposition, expressed or implied; as, Thou art wiser than I; They loved him more than me; I love her more than you. In the first example I is nominative to *am*, understood. In the second, *me* is in the objective case and governed by *loved*, understood. The third example is ambiguous. It may mean, I love her more than I love you, or, I love her more than you love her. Sentences of this kind are usually

unctured with ambiguity, and should generally be avoided. In the construction of comparative sentences, if the adverb or adjective is in the positive degree, it must be followed by *as*; if in the comparative degree, it must be followed by *than*; and if in the superlative degree it must be followed by *of*; as, I have *as much* money *as* you; You have *more* money *than* he; John has the *most* money *of* any.

NOTE 1. By not attending to this rule, many errors have been committed, a number of which is subjoined, as a farther caution and direction to the learner: Thou art a much greater loser than me by his death; She suffers hourly more than me; It was not the work of so eminent an author, as him to whom it was first imputed. If you supply the words which are omitted after the comparative conjunction *than* you will at once perceive that the pronouns are in the wrong case; thus, Thou art a much greater loser than *me am*, &c. It should be *than I am*. She suffers hourly more than *me suffer*; So eminent an author as *him was*. In using sentences of this kind, you should supply the ellipsis in your mind, and you will seldom violate Rule XX.

Some writers place *whom* after the comparative *than*, and some writers on grammar contend that it forms an exception to Rule XX. This is readily admitted, and I, for one, feel willing to admit that it forms an exception to all rules for propriety of expression. It is, in fact, an anomalous use of language, and should be avoided; as, Alfred, than *whom* a greater king never reigned; Beelzebub, than *whom*, Satan excepted, none higher sat, &c.

#### RULE XXI.

To avoid disagreeable repetitions, and to express our ideas with few words, an ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequently admitted; Thus, instead of saying, He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man; we use the ellipsis, and say, He was a learned, wise, and good man.

When the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety, they should be expressed. In the sentence, We are apt to love, who love us: the word *them* should be supplied. A beautiful field and trees, is not proper, because it makes the article *a* refer to the plural noun trees. It should be, beautiful fields

and trees, or a beautiful field and tree, or the connexion should be broken by changing the adjective, a beautiful field, and *fine* trees.

Rules XXI and XXII have no reference to the ordinary method of parsing; but they are of the utmost importance in the construction of sentences. They should, therefore, be carefully considered by every person who wishes to speak and write correctly.

Compound sentences are, generally, more or less elliptical. The reason is, that words mentioned in the former member of the sentence, are readily supplied in the mind, in the latter member; and it should be a maxim, in filling up elliptical sentences, to fill up the ellipsis from the other member of the sentence; as, 'This book is John's. John's what? By referring to the former part of the sentence, we find it should be *Book. John's book.*

I will now give a few examples of the ellipsis of each of the parts of speech, except the interjection.

1. The ellipsis of the article. A man, woman, and child; *A* house and garden; The sun and moon. In these examples the article having been once expressed, there is no occasion for repeating it; but when a change in the article is necessary, it should be repeated: 'Thus, a hand-saw and axe, is not strictly proper, because axe requires *an* to precede it. It should be, a handsaw and *an* axe. Sometimes we repeat the article when we wish to give peculiar emphasis to any one of the connected terms: as, Not only the year and month, but the day, and the hour. The repetition of the article sometimes changes the meaning of the sentence. Thus, in the expression, A black and white calf; one calf is represented, of a variety in colour; but in the expression, A black and *a* white calf, two calves are implied, of different colours.

2. The noun is frequently omitted in the following manner. The laws of God and man: i. e. The laws of God and the laws of man. In sentences strongly marked by emphasis, the ellipsis should not be admitted. Thus, Christ the power of God and the wisdom of God, is more emphatical than, Christ the power and wisdom of God.

3. The ellipsis of the *adjective* is used in the following manner. A delightful garden and orchard. A little man and woman, that is, a little man and a little woman. But the ellipsis is not admissible, unless the adjective may as properly apply to the latter noun, as to the former.

4. The following is the ellipsis of the *pronoun*. I love and fear him, that is, I love him—I fear him. In familiar style we frequently omit the relative pronoun, thus: This is the man they love, instead of This is the man *whom* they love. As this omission frequently occasions the nature and use of the verb to be mistaken, it is better to avoid it.

In the sentence, We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen; the substitution of *that* for the compound relative *what* is manifestly erroneous.

5. The ellipsis of the *verb* is used in the following manner. The man was old and crafty, that is, 'The man was old—The man was crafty. She was young, beautiful, and good. If we would supply the ellipsis in the last example, *she was* should be placed before each adjective.

The auxiliary verbs frequently stand for the principal verbs in the latter member of a compound sentence; as, I learn my lesson, but thou *dost not*, that is, *dost not learn thy lesson*. We succeeded, but they did not—*did not succeed*.

6. The ellipsis of the *adverb* is as follows. He spoke and acted wisely—he *spoke wisely*, and he *acted wisely*. Thrice I went, and offered my service, that is, Thrice I went, and thrice I offered my service.

7. The ellipsis of the *preposition*, as well as of the verb and pronoun, is seen in the following examples. He went into the abbeys, halls, and public buildings; that is, He went into the abbeys; he went into the halls, and he went into the public buildings.

8. The ellipsis of the *conjunction* is as follows. They confess the power, wisdom, goodness, and love of the supreme; that is, the power and wisdom and goodness and love, &c. Though I love him, I do not flatter him, that is, *yet* I do not, &c.

9. It is of little consequence to attend to the ellipsis of the interjection, for it would probably conduce to the propriety of *written* language if it were altogether omitted. It is not easy to make written composition sufficiently passionate, to grace the interjective style, unless it be in petitions to the Deity. Elliptic sentences crowd upon us in every species of composition, but they are the most numerous in poetry. Young and Thompson have indulged in it, in many instances, to the obscuring of the sense. This may be admissible in poetic effusions, but it certainly is not admissible in prose composition.

The following sentences, though short, contain much ellipsis: Wo is me, that is, *to me*; To walk a mile, that is, *to walk over* the distance, or space, *of* a mile. He walked the room all night in great agony; i. e. He walked *in*, or *through*, the room *during* the whole night, &c. I dine at one o'clock, that is, at one *on* the clock.

10. In the following examples the ellipsis is improperly used. The land was always possessed, during pleasure, by those intrusted with the command. It should be, those *persons* intrusted, or those *who* were intrusted. There is nothing men are more deficient in, than knowing their own character. It should be, nothing *in which*, &c., than *in* knowing. I scarcely know any part of natural philosophy would yield more variety and use. By the omission of the relative pronoun, this sentence is rendered ambiguous. It should be, *which* would yield, &c.



## RULE XXII.

All the parts of a sentence should *correspond* to each other: a regular and dependent *construction* throughout should be carefully preserved. The following sentence is, in this respect, inaccurate: He was more beloved, but not so much admired, as Cinthio. *More* requires *than* after it, which is nowhere found in the sentence. To say he was more beloved *as* Cinthio, is highly improper. It should be, He was more beloved *than* Cinthio, but not so much admired.

This rule relates to the construction of sentences in all their parts and members; and may be considered as comprehending all the principles of the preceding ones. It will, however, apply to many forms of expression which none of the former rules can be brought to bear upon. Its generality may seem to render it useless; but by ranging under it a number of varied examples, you will perceive its utility; and that it is calculated to prove the propriety or impropriety of many modes of expression, which the less general rules cannot determine.

"This dedication may serve for almost any book, that has, is, or shall be published." It ought to be, that has been, or shall be, published. Who would say, *is be published*? "He was guided by interests always different, sometimes contrary, to those of the community;" always different *from* those of the community, and sometimes contrary to them. "Will it be urged that those books are as old, or even older than tradition;" as old and older cannot have a common regimen; it should be, as old as tradition, or even older. "It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire," or, "which at least they may not acquire." "The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law." In this construction, the first verb is said to mitigate the teeth of the common law, which is a manifest solecism; Mitigates the common law, and breaks the teeth of it, or breaks its teeth, would have been grammatical. "They frequently grow into good humor, and good language towards the crown." A person may grow into good humor, but, to grow into good language, is nonsense; It should be, and to come to use good language, &c. "There is never wanting a set of evil instruments, who either out of mad zeal, private hatred, or filthy lucre, are always ready, &c.; It is proper to say, a man acts out of mad zeal, or private hatred, but we cannot say, if we would speak English, he *acts out of* filthy lucre; It should be, *for* filthy lucre. "Never was man so teased, or suffered half the uneasiness as I have done this evening; The first and third clauses, Never was man so teased, as I have

done this evening, cannot be joined without an impropriety; and to connect the second and third, the word *that* must be used instead of *as*; *O* suffered half the uneasiness *that* I have done this evening.

The first part of the following sentence abounds with adverbs, and such ones as are hardly consistent with each other: "*How much soever* the reformation of this degenerate age, is *almost utterly* to be despaired of, we may yet have a more comfortable prospect of future times." This sentence would be more correct in the following form: *Though* the reformation of this degenerate age is almost to be despaired of, *yet, &c.*

"We have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding, those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision." This sentence is highly improper, as will appear from the following investigation.

We can alter and compound images once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision; but we cannot *retain* them into all the varieties of picture and vision; and yet, according to the manner in which the words are ranged, this construction is unavoidable. Retaining, altering, and compounding, are participles, each of which equally refers to the subsequent noun *images*, and governs it in the objective case; and *images* is necessarily connected with the preposition *into*, which governs varieties. Were we to fill up the ellipsis, it would read, "Altering those images into all the varieties;" "compounding those images into all the varieties;" and "retaining those images into all the varieties, &c."

Had the participle *retaining* been separated from the other participles, the sentence would have been grammatical, though inelegant; thus, We have the power of retaining those images once received, and of altering and compounding them into all the varieties of picture and vision. The practice of employing the preposition *of* and participle, instead of the infinitive mode, is not to be recommended. The sentence would have been better thus: "We have power to retain, alter, and compound those images which we have once received, and to form them into all the varieties of picture and vision. To a superficial observer, and to the student who studies grammar merely because it is fashionable to do so, these attempts to show the best and most elegant manner of constructing sentences, will appear useless, and the perusal of them a waste of time; but, to the studious and enterprising youth, who is desirous of attaining a correct knowledge of his vernacular tongue, they will be pleasing and instructive, and for *such* they are designed. Those who are content with the name of having studied the science of grammar, together with a snattering knowledge of its principles, will, of course, only attend to the rules, and some of the principal and easiest of the notes; but those who desire to excel in this indispensable science, will examine the *whole* critically and improve by the examination. I trust you are of the latter character.

## SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

Having given you an explanation of the parts of speech, some examples of Etymological and Syntactical parsing, as well as the manner of prosing verse, and the rules and observations for forming words into sentences, I will now give you a number of varied examples of Syntactical parsing. As this production is designed particularly for the use of those who have the resolution to undertake the study without instructors, this part of the work will be continued to an unusual length. Before entering on this part, it is indispensably necessary that you have a thorough knowledge of the preceding parts, and especially of Etymology, Etymological parsing, and the rules of Syntax. If your knowledge be deficient in any of these respects, you need not expect to be much benefitted by this part of the work; and it will be to your benefit to review those parts with attention, before you commence with this mode of parsing. It is highly necessary that you should be able to parse correct sentences with fluency and precision, that you may be the better prepared to read with reference to the grammatical construction of the sentences, and also to commence the correcting of false Syntax in our author's exercises. Nothing short of a critical knowledge of the language should satisfy you, and to this you may readily attain if you have the courage to persevere. In presenting sentences for you to parse, I shall, in the first instance, write them in the usual manner; then, if need be, show their transposition; which having done, I shall place the words, as they occur in their natural order in the sentence, in a column down the left hand margin or side of the page, and give the manner of parsing each word opposite to that word, at the right hand, numbering the rules and notes, which I hope you are now prepared to repeat, by seeing that number.

## Virtue ennobles us.

*Virtue*—is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, in the nominative case to the verb *ennobles*.

*ennobles*—is a regular, active, transitive verb, in the indicative mode, present tense, it is of the third person, and singular number, to agree with its nominative case *virtue*, according to Rule I. Repeat ere y rule.

*us*—is a personal pronoun, of the first person, plural number, and in the objective case, governed by the verb *ennobles*. Rule XI.

By living temperately, our health is improved.

*By*—is a preposition, it serves to connect *is improved* and *living* and shows the relation between them.

*living*—is a present participle, derived from the neuter verb *live*, it is formed by adding *ing* to the verb. It refers to *we*, understood.

*temperately*—is an adverb used to express the manner of the action or being denoted by the participle *living*, and qualifies it.

Rule XV.

*our*—is a personal pronoun of the first person, plural number, in the possessive case, governed by the noun *health*. Rule X.

*health*—is a common noun, of no gender, third person, singular number, and in the nominative case to the verb *is improved*.

*is improved*—is a regular passive verb, in the indicative mode, present tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative, *health*. Rule I.

Some angel guide my pencil, while I draw,

What nothing less than angel can exceed,

A man on earth, devoted to the skies;

Like ships at sea, while in, above the world.

This is an imperative sentence, and must be changed into prose, according to the directions given at Page 98, for the imperative sentence. The imperative verb is not expressed in this sentence, and must be supplied; 'Thus,

Let some angel guide my pencil, while I draw what (the thing which) nothing less than angel, can exceed, a man on earth devoted to the skies; like ships at sea, while in, above the world: That is, while they are in the world, they are above the world.

*Let*—is an irregular active transitive verb, in the imperative mode, and present tense.

*some*—is an indefinite adjective pronoun, it belongs to angel. Rule VIII.

*angel*—is a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, and in the objective case, governed by *let*. Rule XI.

*guide*—is a regular active transitive verb, in the infinitive mode, present tense, it follows *let* without the sign *to* prefixed. Note to Rule XII.

*my*—is a personal pronoun of the first person singular, in the possessive case, governed by *pencil*. Rule X.

*pencil*—is a noun common, of no gender, third person, singular number, in the objective case, governed by the transitive verb *guide*. Rule XI.

*while*—is an adverbial conjunction, it denotes time, and connects the members of a compound sentence.

*I*—is a personal pronoun, of the first person singular, in the nominative case to the verb *draw*.

**draw**—is an irregular active transitive verb, in the indicative mode, present tense, first person singular, to agree with its nominative *I*. Rule I.

**what**—is a compound relative pronoun, equal to the thing which. *Thing*; The antecedent part, is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, in the objective case, governed by *draw*. Rule XI. *Which*; The relative part, is a relative pronoun, referring to *thing* for its antecedent, according to Rule V, 2d part. *Which* is in the objective case, and governed by the verb *can exceed*. Rule VI, 2d part.

**nothing**—is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, in the nominative case *no can exceed*.

**less**—is an adjective in the comparative degree, belonging to *nothing*. Rule VIII.

**than**—is a disjunctive conjunction, used to connect two members of a comparative sentence, following the adjective *less* in the comparative degree. See first remark, Rule XX.

**angel**—is a common noun, masculine gender, third person, singular number, and in the nominative case to *is* understood after *than*. Rule XX.

**can exceed**—is a regular, active, transitive verb, (transitive because it governs the relative pronoun *which*;) potential mode, present tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative *nothing*. Rule I.

**a**—is the indefinite article, points out man. Rule IX, 1st part.

**man**—is a noun common, masculine gender, third person, singular number; *man* is in the objective case, put in apposition with the antecedent part of *what*, and governed by *draw*. Remark 1st, Rule X.

**on**—is a preposition, connects *man* and *earth*, and shows the relation existing between them.

**earth**—is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *on*. Rule XVII.

**devoted**—is a perfect participle, derived from the verb *devote*; it represents the action as finished and refers to *man*.

**to**—is a preposition, shows the relation between *devoted* and *skies*.

**the**—is the definite article, points out *skies*. Rule IX, 2d part.

**skies**—is a noun common, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *to*. Rule XVIII.

**like**—is an adjective, referring to *man*. Rule VIII, 1st part.

**ships**—is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, in the objective case, governed by *unto* understood after *like*. Rule XVII.

**at**—is a preposition, connects *ships* and *sea*, and shows relation.

*sea*---is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *at*. Rule XVII.

*while*---is an adverbial conjunction, connecting two members of the sentence, and also denoting time.

*in*---is a preposition, connects *ships* understood and *world* understood.

*above*---is a preposition, shows relation between *ships* understood, and *world* expressed.

*The*---is the definite article, points out *world*. Rule IX, 2d part.

*world*---is a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *above*. Rule XVII.

In the examples which follow, I propose to use contractions or abbreviations, for those words which may easily be understood: Thus, com. for common, mas. for masculine gender, fem. for feminine gender, art. for article, def. for definite, indef. for indefinite, pot. for potential, &c.

Of all the causes which conspire to blind

Man's erring judgment, and misguide the mind,

What the weak head with strongest bias rules

Is pride, the never failing vice of fools.

There is some difficulty in prosing this verse, on account of the use made of the compound relative *what*. This will compel us to commence the sentence with the preposition, which is not usually the case. We might avoid this in this sentence, by placing the leading nom. pride, at a distance from its verb.

Of all the causes which conspire to blind man's erring judgment, and misguide the mind; pride, the never failing vice of fools, is what (*the thing which*) rules the weak head with strongest bias.

*Of*---is a prep. connects *pride* and *causes*, and shows relation.

*all*---is an indef. adj. pro. belongs to *causes*. Rule VIII.

*The*---def. art. points out *causes*. Rule IX, 2d part.

*causes*---com. noun, no gen. third per. sing. num. obj. case, governed by *of*. Rule XVII.

*which*---a rel. pron. has *causes* for its antecedent. Rule V, 2d part.

*Which* is nom. case to the verb conspire. Rule VI, 1st part.

*conspire*---reg. act. intransitive verb, indic. mode, pres. tense, third pers. plural, to agree with *which*. Rule I.

*to blind*---a reg. act. tran. verb, infin. mode, pres. tense, depends on *conspire*. Rule XII.

*man's*---a com. noun, mas. gen. third pers. sing. number, poss. case, governed by *judgment*. Rule X.

*erring*---a part. adj. qualifies *judgment*. Rule VIII.

*judgment*---a com. noun, no gen. third per. sing. number, obj. case, and gov. by *to blind*. Rule XI.

*and*—a cop. conjunction, connects the verbs *to blind* and *misguide*.

Rule XVIII.

*misguide*—a reg. act. trans. verb, infin. mode, pres. tense, connected to *to blind* by *and*. Rule XVIII.

*the*—def. art. points out *mind*. Rule IX, 2d part.

*mind*—a noun com. no gend. third pers. sing. numb. obj. case, gov. by *misguide*. Rule XI.

*pride*—a com. noun, no gend. third pers. sing. number, nom. case to the verb *is*.

*the*—def. art. points out *vice*. Rule IX, 2d part.

*never-failing*—a compound adjective, qualifies *vice*. Rule VIII.

*vice*—a noun com. no gend. third pers. sing. number, put in apposition with *pride*. Remark 1st Rule X.

*of*—a prep. connects *vice* and *fools*, and shows relation.

*fools*—com. noun, mas. or fem. gend. third pers. plur. number, obj. case, gov. by *of*. Rule XVII.

*is*—irreg. neut. verb, ind. mode, pres. tense, third pers. sing. to agree with *pride*. Rule I.

*what*—a compound rel. pron. equal to the thing which; *thing*; a noun nom. case after *is*. Note 4, Rule XI. *Which*, a rel. pron. has *thing* for its antecedent. Rule V, 2d part; *which* is nom. case to *rules*. Rule VI, 1st part.

*rules*—a reg. act. trans. verb, ind. mode, pres. tense, third pers. sing. to agree with its nom. *which*. Rule V, 2d part.

*the*—def. art. points out *head*. Rule IX, 2d part.

*weak*—an adj. positive degree, qualifies *head*. Rule XVIII.

*head*—a com. noun, no gender, third pers. sing. num. obj. case, gov. by *rules*. Rule XI.

*with*—prep. connects *head* and *bias*, and shows relation.

*strongest*—an adj. in superlative degree, qualifies *bias*. Rule XVIII.

*bias*—a com. noun, no gend. third pers. sing. num. obj. case, gov. by *with*. Rule XVII.

### *The Lord's prayer.*

Our Father, who art in Heaven! Hallowed be thy name; Thy kingdom come, thy will be done on earth as it is in Heaven. Give us this day our daily bread; and forgive our trespasses, as we forgive those who trespass against us. Lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil. For thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory, forever and ever. Amen.

In parsing this prayer, you must notice that the verb *let* is understood at the beginning of the second, third, and fourth petitions; thus, *Let thy kingdom come. Let thy name be hallowed, &c. Let thy will, &c.*

*Our*—is a pers. pron. first pers. plural num. poss. case, gov. by *father*.

Rule X.

*Father*—com. noun, mas. genl. second pers. sing. nom. case independent.

Remark 2d, Rule X.

*who*—rel. pron. has *father* for its antecedent. Rule V, 2d part; *who* is nom. case to *art*. Rule VI, 1st part.

*art*—irreg. neut. verb, ind. mode, pres. tense, second pers. sing. to agree with *who*. Rule V, 2d part.

*in*—a prep. connects *art* and *Heaven*, and shows relation.

*Heaven*—a com. noun, no gender, third pers. sing. num. obj. case, gov. by *in*. Rule XVII.

*Let*—irregular active transitive verb, imperative mode, present tense.

*thy*—personal pronoun, second person, singular number, possessive case, governed by *kingdom*. Rule X.

*kingdom*—common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *let*. Rule XI.

*come*—irregular active intransitive verb, infinitive mode, present tense, governed by *let*, without the sign *to*. 1st Remark, Rule XII.

*Let*—as before.

*thy*—as before, governed by *will*. Rule X.

*will*—common noun, no gender, third person singular, objective case, governed by *let*. Rule XI.

*be done*—irregular passive verb, infinitive mode, present tense, governed by *let*, without the sign *to*. Rule XII, 1st Remark.

*on*—a preposition, connects *be done* and *earth*, shows relation.

*earth*—common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *on*. Rule XVII.

*as*—is a conjunction, connecting the members of a comparative sentence.

*it*—a pronoun, personating *will*, no gender, third person, singular number, nominative case to *is done*.

*is done*—irregular passive verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, to agree with *it*. Rule I.

*in*—a preposition, connects *is done* and *heaven*, shows relation.

*Heaven*—common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *in*. Rule XVII.

*Give*—an irregular active transitive verb, imperative mode, present tense.

*us*—a personal pronoun, first person, plural number, objective case, governed by *to* understood, that is, Give to us, &c. Rule XVII.

*this*—a dem. adjective pronoun, points out *day*. Rule VIII, 2d part.

*day*—a noun common, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *during* understood. Rule XVII.



*our*—personal pronoun, first person, plural number, possessive case, governed by *bread*. Rule X.

*daily*—an adjective, qualifies *bread*. Rule VIII.

*bread*—a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *give*. Rule XI.

*and*—a copulative conjunction, connects two members of a compound sentence.

*forgive*—an irregular active transitive verb, imperative mode, present tense.

*us*—a personal pronoun, &c. objective case, governed by *to* understood, Rule XXII.

*our*—*as before*, governed by *trespasses*. Rule XI.

*trespasses*—a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *forgive*. Rule XI.

*as*—*parse it as you did before*.

*we*—a personal pronoun, first person, plural number, nominative case to the verb *forgive*.

*forgive*—an irregular active transitive verb, indicative mode, present tense, first person plural, to agree with *we*. Rule I.

*those*—a pronoun demonstrative, stands for the noun *persons*, third person, plural number, objective case, governed by *forgive*. Rule XI.

*who*—a relative pronoun, has *those* for its antecedent, masculine and or feminine gender, third person, plural number. Rule V, 2d part.

*that who* is in the nominative case to the verb *trespass*. Rule VI, 1st part.

*trespass*—a regular active intransitive verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person plural, to agree with *who*. Rule I.

*against*—a preposition, connects *trespass* and *us*, shows relation.

*us*—a personal pronoun, first person, plural number, objective case, governed by *against*. Rule XVII.

*Lead*—an irregular active transitive verb, imperative mode, present tense.

*us*—*parsed as before*, objective case, governed by *lead*. Rule XI.

*not*—an adverb of negation, qualifies *lead*. Rule XI.

*into*—a preposition, connects *us* and *temptation*, and shows relation.

*temptation*—a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *into*. Rule XVII.

*but*—a disjunctive conjunction, connects two members of a compound sentence, and marks an opposition of meaning.

*deliver*—a regular active transitive verb, imperative mode, present tense.

*us*—*parsed as before*, governed by *deliver*. Rule XI.

*from*—a preposition, connects *us* and *evil*.

*evil*—a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, objective case, governed by *from*. Rule XVII.

*And*—a copulative conjunction, connects two members of a sentence and marks a cause.

*thine*—is a compound personal pronoun, equal to *thy kingdom*; *thy* is second person singular, possessive case, governed by *kingdom*, Rule X; *kingdom* is nominative case after *is*, Note 4, Rule XI.

*is*—an irregular neuter verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person singular, to agree with *kingdom*. Rule I.

*the*—definite article, points out *kingdom*. Rule IX, 2d part.

*kingdom*—a common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, nominative case to *is*.

*the*—definite article, points out power. Rule IX, 2d part.

*power*—common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, nominative case to *is*, understood, or not expressed.

*and*—a copulative conjunction, connects two members of the sentence.

*the*—definite article, points out glory. Rule IX.

*glory*—common noun, no gender, third person, singular number, nominative case to *is*, not expressed.

*forever and ever*—an adverb of time unlimited, qualifies *is*. Rule XV.

*Amen*—an adverb of affirmation, implying a desire for the accomplishment of the foregoing petitions.

This is the usual mode of construing the word *amen*. My views of the subject are different. To me it appears that *amen* contains an imperative sentence, and, in meaning, is equivalent to, Let it be so, or, So let it be, and that in analyzing we should construe it in this sense. The subject is before you, and you are privileged to make your election.

Thus my young friends, do my labors on this work come to a close. For the author's treatise on prosody and punctuation, are beyond my ability to improve: and are sufficiently plain for your perusal and improvement. They are subjects well worthy your attention, indeed, if you intend to become good readers, speakers, and writers, they are indispensable; for how can you speak or read well, unless you understand *accent, emphasis, pause, tone, and cadence*? Or how can you write with accuracy, without understanding the use of those marks used to designate the period and its members? That part of prosody which treats of the laws of versification, will be particularly necessary to you, if you wish to read verse with propriety; or if you design to study the science of vocal music; for music is based upon the principles contained in this part of the grammar of our language. That portion of the author's work which refers to rhetoric, is omitted. Rhetoric is a science which should be studied, after you have attained a knowledge of grammar, and in a more copious treatise than could be contained in an appendix to this work. Blair's Rhetorick is abridged for the use of schools, and is a work well worthy your attention.

I will close my remarks by earnestly entreating you to peruse, with careful attention, the author's valedictory address to young students, found at the end of the work. It is a production which no person can read with attention, without being profited by its instruction; and though the heart that dictated, the head that indited, and the hand that wrote it, are now no more, yet, he being dead, yet speaketh to the youth of his native land.

Your affectionate friend,

THE REVISER.

## PART 5TH.

## PROSODY.

PROSODY consists of two parts: the former teaches the true PRONUNCIATION of words, comprising ACCENT, QUANTITY, EMPHASIS, PAUSE, and TONE; and the latter, the laws of VERSIFICATION.

## CHAPTER I.

## OF PRONUNCIATION.

SECTION 1. *Of Accent.*

ACCENT is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice, on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them: as, in the word *presume*, the stress of the voice must be on the letter *u*, and second syllable, *sume*, which take the accent.

As words may be formed of a different number of syllables, from one to eight or nine, it was necessary to have some peculiar mark to distinguish words from mere syllables; otherwise speech would be only a continued succession of syllables, without conveying ideas; for, as words are the marks of ideas, any confusion in the marks, must cause the same in the ideas for which they stand. It was therefore necessary, that the mind should at once perceive, what number of syllables belongs to each word, in utterance. This might be done by a perceptible pause at the end of each word in speaking, as we form a certain distance between them in writing and printing. But this would make discourse extremely tedious; and though it might render words distinct, would make the meaning of sentences confused. Syllables might also be sufficiently distinguished by a certain elevation or depression of voice upon one syllable of each word, which was the practice of some nations. But the English tongue has,

for this purpose, adopted a mark of the easiest and simplest kind, which is called accent, and which effectually answers the end.

Every word in our language, of more than one syllable, has one of them distinguished from the rest in this manner; and some writers assert, that every monosyllable of two or more letters, has one of its letters thus distinguished.

Accent is either principal or secondary. The principal accent is that which necessarily distinguishes one syllable in a word from the rest. The secondary accent is that stress which we may occasionally place upon another syllable, besides that which has the principal accent; in order to pronounce every part of the word more distinctly, forcibly, and harmoniously: thus, "Complaisant, caravan," and "violin," have frequently an accent on the first as well as on the last syllable, though a somewhat less forcible one. The same may be observed of "Leopartee, referee, priateer, domineer," &c. But it must be observed, that though an accent is allowed on the first syllable of these words, it is by no means necessary; they may all be pronounced with one accent, and that on the last syllable, without the least deviation from propriety.

As emphasis evidently points out the most significant word in a sentence; so, where other reasons do not forbid, the accent always dwells with greatest force on that part of the word which, from its importance, the learner has always the greatest occasion to observe: and this is necessarily the root or body of the word. But as harmony of termination frequently attracts the accent from the root to the branches of words, so the first and most natural law of accentuation seems to operate less in fixing the stress than any other. Our own Saxon terminations, indeed, with perfect uniformity, leave the principal part of the word in quiet possession of what seems its lawful property; but Latin and Greek terminations, of which our language is full, assume a right of preserving their original accent, and subject almost every word they bestow upon us to their own classical laws.

Accent, therefore, seems to be regulated in a great measure by etymology. In words from the Saxon, the accent is generally on the root; in words from the learned languages, it is generally on the termination; and if to these we add the different accent we lay on some words, to distinguish them from others we seem to have the three great principles of accentuation; namely, the *radical*, the *terminational*, and the *distinctive*. The radical: as, "Love, lovely, loveliness;" the termination: as, "Harmony, harmonious;" the distinctive: as, "Convert, to convert."

#### ACCENT ON DISSYLLABLES.

Words of two syllables have necessarily one of them accented, and but one. It is true, for the sake of emphasis, we sometimes lay an equal

stress upon two successive syllables: as, "Di-réct, some-times;" but when these words are pronounced alone, they have never more than one accent. The word "à-mén," is the only word which is pronounced with two accents when alone.

Of dissyllables, formed by affixing a termination, the former syllable is commonly accented: as, "Childish, kingdom, áctest, ácted, tóilsome, lover, sôffer, fairer, fôremost, zélous, fúlness, medícly, ártist."

Dissyllables formed by prefixing a syllable to the radical word, have commonly the accent on the latter: as, "Pô besécém, to bestôw, to rêturn."

Of dissyllables, which are at once nouns and verbs, the verb has commonly the accent on the latter, and the noun on the former syllable: as, "Pô cemént, a énént; to cômtráct, a côntráct; to préságe, a piéságe."

This rule has many exceptions. Though verbs seldom have their accent on the former, yet nouns often have it on the latter syllable: as, "De-light, perfúme." Those nouns which, in the common order of language, must have preceded the verbs, often transmit their accent to the verbs they form, and inversely. Thus, the noun "wáter" must have preceded the verb "to wáter," as the verb "to correspond," must have preceded the noun "correspóndent;" and "to pursúe" claims priority to "pursúit." So that we may conclude, wherever verbs deviate from the rule, it is seldom by chance, and generally in those words only where a superior law of accent takes place.

All dissyllables ending in *z*, *ou*, *ow*, *le*, *ish*, *ck*, *ter*, *age*, *en*, *et*: as, "Cráamy, lábor, willow, wállow;" except "allôw, a ôw, endôw, bêlôw, bestôw;" "báttle, bânish, cámbric, báttér, côûrage, fâsten, quiet;" accent the former syllable.

Dissyllable nouns in *er*, as, "Cánker, búttér," have the accent on the former syllable,

Dissyllable verbs, terminating in a consonant and *e* final, as, "Côm-príse, escápe;" or having a diphthong in the last syllable, as, "Appréase, rê-ét;" or ending in two consonants; as, "Atténd;" have the accents on the latter syllable,

Dissyllable nouns, having a diphthong in the latter syllable, have commonly their accent on the latter syllable; as, "Appláuse;" except some words in *ain*: as, "Villain, cúrtain, móuntain,"

Dissyllables that have two vowels, which are separated in the pronunciation, have always the accent on the first syllable: as, "Líon, ríot, quiet, líar, rúin;" except "créate,"

#### ACCENT ON TRISYLLABLES.

Trisyllables formed by adding a termination, or prefixing a syllable, retain the accent of the radical word: as, "Lóveliness, ténderness,

contémner, wágoner, physical, bespáttér, cômmenting, comménding, as-súrance."

Trisyllables ending in *ous, al, ion*: as, arduous, capital, méntion," accent the first.

Trisyllables ending in *ce, ent, and ate*, accent the first syllable: as, "Cóntenance, còntenance, armament, imminent, élegant, própagate;" unless they are derived from words having the accent on the last; as, "Connivance, acquáintance;" and unless the middle syllable has a vowel before two consonants: as, "Promúlgate."

Trisyllables ending in *y*, as, éntity, spécify, liberty, victory, súbsidy," commonly accent the first syllable.

Trisyllables ending in *re* or *le*, accent the first syllable: as, "Légible, théâtre;" except "Disciple," and some words which have a preposition: as, "Exámple, indénture."

Trisyllables ending in *ude*, commonly accent the first syllable: as, "Plénitude, hábitude, réctitude."

Trisyllables ending in *ator*, have the accent on the middle syllable; as, "Spectátor, créator," &c.: except "órator, sénator, bárrator, légator."

Trisyllables which have in the middle syllable a diphthong, as, "Endéivor;" or a vowel before two consonants; as, "Doméstic;" accent the middle syllable.

Trisyllables that have their accent on the last syllable, are commonly French: as, "Acquiesce, reparté:, magaziné;" or they are words formed by prefixing one or two syllables to a long syllable: as, "Immatúre, overcharge."

#### ACCENT ON POLYSYLLABLES.

Polysyllables, or words of more than three syllables, generally follow the accent of the words from which they are derived: as, "arrogating còntinency, incòntinently, commendable, communicableness."

Words ending in *ator* have the accent generally on the penultimate, or last syllable but one: as, "Emendátor, gladiátor, equivocátor, prévaricátor."

Words ending in *le* commonly have the accent on the first syllable: as, "ámicable, déspicable;" unless the second syllable has a vowel before two consonants: as, "Combústible, condémnable."

Words ending in *ion, ous, and ty*, have their accent on the antepenultimate, or last syllable but two: as, "Salvátion, victórious, áctivity."

Words which end in *ia, io, and cal*, have the accent on the antepenult: as, "Cyclopædia, punctilio, despótical."

The rules respecting accent, are not advanced as complete or infallible: they are merely proposed as useful. Almost every rule of every language has its exceptions; and, in English, as in other tongues, much must be learned by example and authority.

It may be further observed, that though the syllable on which the principal accent is placed, is fixed and certain, yet we may, and do, frequently make the secondary principal, and the principal secondary: thus, "Caravan, complaisant, violin, repartee, referee, privateer, domineer," may all have the greater stress on the first, and the less on the last syllable, without any violent offence to the ear: nay, it may be asserted, that the principal accent on the first syllable of these words, and none at all on the last, though certainly improper, has nothing in it grating or discordant; but placing an accent on the second syllable of these words would entirely derange them, and produce great harshness and dissonance. The same observations may be applied to "demonstration, lamentation, provocation, navigator, propagator, alligator," and every similar word in the language.

## SECTION 2. *Of Quantity.*

THE quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered as LONG OR SHORT.

A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel; which occasions it to be slowly joined in pronunciation with the following letters: as, "Fall, bale, mood, house, feature."

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant; which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter: as, "ant, bonnet, hanger."

A long syllable generally requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it; thus, "Mate" and "Note" should be pronounced as slowly again as "Mat" and "Not."

Unaccented syllables are generally short: as, "admire, boldness, sinner." But to this rule there are many exceptions: as, "also, exile gangle, umpire, foretaste," &c.

When the accent is on a consonant, the syllable is often more or less short, as it ends with a single consonant, or with more than one: as, "Sadly, robber, persist, matchless."

When the accent is on a semi-vowel, the time of the syllable may be protracted, by dwelling upon the semi-vowel: as, "Cur, can, fulfil:" but when the accent falls on a mute, the syllable cannot be lengthened in the same manner: as, "Bubble, captain, totter."

The quantity of vowels has, in some measure, been considered under the first part of grammar, which treats of the different sounds of the letters; and therefore we shall dismiss this subject with a few general rules and observations.



1st, All vowels under the principal accent, before the terminations *ia*, *io*, and *ion*, preceded by a single consonant, are pronounced long: as, "Regalia, folio, adhesion, explosion, confusion;" except the vowel *i*, which in that situation is short: as, "Militia, punctilio, decision, contrition." The only exceptions to this rule seem to be "Discretion, battalion, gladiator, national, and rational."

2d, All vowels that immediately precede the terminations *ity* and *ety*, are pronounced long: as, "Deity, piety, spontaneity." But if one consonant precedes these terminations, every preceding accented vowel is short; except *u*, and the *a* in "scarcity," and "rarity;" as, "Polarity, severity, divinity, curiosity;—impunity." Even *u* before two consonants contracts itself: as, "Curvity, taciturnity," &c.

3d, Vowels under the principal accent, before the terminations *ic* and *ical*, preceded by a single consonant, are pronounced short; thus, "Satanic, pathetic, elliptic, harmonic," have the vowel short; while "Tunic, xunic, cubic," have the accented vowel long; and "Fanatical, poetical, levitical, canonical," have the vowel short: but "Cubical, musical," &c. have the *u* long.

4th, The vowel in the antepenultimate syllable of words, with the following terminations, is always pronounced short.

<i>loquy</i> ; as, obloquy.	<i>parous</i> ; as, oviparous.
<i>strophe</i> ; as, apostrophe.	<i>cracy</i> ; as, aristocracy.
<i>meter</i> ; as, barometer.	<i>gony</i> ; as, cosmogony.
<i>gonal</i> ; as, diagonal.	<i>phony</i> ; as, symphony.
<i>vorous</i> ; as, carnivorous.	<i>nomy</i> ; as, astronomy.
<i>ferous</i> ; as, somniferous.	<i>tomy</i> ; as, anatomy.
<i>fluus</i> ; as, superfluous.	<i>pathy</i> ; as, antipathy.
<i>fluent</i> ; as, mellifluent.	

As no utterance which is void of proportion, can be agreeable to the ear; and as quantity, or proportion of time in utterance, greatly depends on a due attention to the accent; it is absolutely necessary for every person who would attain a just and pleasing delivery, to be master of that point. See this section in the *Octavo Grammar*.

### SECTION 3. Of Emphasis.

By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to lay particular stress, and to show how they affect the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

On the right management of the emphasis depends the life of pronunciation. If no emphasis be placed on any words, not only will discourse be rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning often left ambiguous. If the emphasis be placed wrong, we shall pervert and confound the meaning wholly. To give a common instance: such a simple question as this, "Do you ride to town to-day?" is capable of no fewer than four different acceptations, according as the emphasis is differently placed on the words. If it be pronounced thus: "Do *you* ride to town to-day?" the answer may naturally be, "No, we send a servant in our stead." If thus: "Do you *ride* to town to-day?" answer, "No, we intend to walk." "Do you ride to *town* to-day?" "No, we ride into the country." "Do you ride to town *to-day*?" "No, but we shall to-morrow." In like manner, in solemn discourse, the whole force and beauty of an expression often depend on the emphatic word; and we may present to the hearers quite different views of the same sentiment, by placing the emphasis differently. In the following words of our Saviour, observe in what different lights the thought is placed, according as the words are pronounced. "Judas, betrayest thou the son of man with a kiss?" "*Betrayest* thou," makes the reproach turn on the infamy of treachery. "*Betrayest thou*," makes it rest upon Judas's connexion with his master. "*Betrayest thou the son of man*," rests it upon our Saviour's personal character and eminence. "*Betrayest thou the son of man with a kiss*?" turns it upon his prostituting the signal of peace and friendship to the purpose of destruction.

The emphasis often lies on the word that asks a question: as, "*Who* said so?" "*When* will he come?" "*What* shall I do?" "*Whither* shall I go?" "*Why* dost thou weep?" And when two words are set in contrast, or in opposition to one another, they are both emphatic; as, "He is the *tyrant*, not the *father* of his people;" "His subjects *fear* him, but they do not *love* him."

Some sentences are so full and comprehensive, that almost every word is emphatical: as, "Ye hills and dales, ye rivers, woods, and plains:" or, as that pathetic expostulation in the prophecy of Ezekiel, "Why will ye die?" In the latter short sentence, every word is emphatical; and on which ever word we lay the emphasis, whether on the first, second, third, or fourth, it strikes out a different sense, and opens a new subject of moving expostulation.

As accent dignifies the syllable on which it is laid, and makes it more distinguished by the ear than the rest; so emphasis ennobles the word to which it belongs, and presents it in stronger light to the understanding. Were there no accents, words would be resolved into their original syllables: were there no emphasis, sentences would be resolved into their original words; and, in this case, the hearer would be under the painful necessity, first, of making out the words, and afterwards, their meaning.

Emphasis is of two kinds, simple and complex. Simple, when it serves to point out only the plain meaning of any proposition; complex, when, besides the meaning, it marks also some affection or emotion of the mind; or gives a meaning to words, which they would not have in their usual acceptation. In the former case, emphasis is scarcely more than a stronger accent, with little or no change of tone; when it is complex, besides force, there is always superadded a manifest change of tone.

The following sentence contains an example of simple emphasis: "And Nathan said to David, *Thou* art the man." The emphasis on *thou*, serves only to point out the meaning of the speaker. But in the sentence which follows, we perceive an emotion of the speaker superadded to the simple meaning: "Why will ye die!"

As the emphasis often falls on words in different parts of the same sentence, so it is frequently required to be continued, with a little variation, on two, and sometimes three words together. The following sentence exemplifies both the parts of this position: "If you seek to make one rich, study not to *increase his stores*, but to *diminish his desires*." Emphasis may be further distinguished, into the weaker and the stronger emphasis. In the sentence, "Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution;" we perceive more force on the word *strengthen*, than on any other; though it is not equal to the stress which we apply to the word *indifferent*, in the following sentence: "Exercise and temperance strengthen even an *indifferent* constitution." It is also proper to remark, that the words *exercise*, *temperance*, *constitution*, in the last example but one, are pronounced with greater force, than the particles *and* and *the*; and yet those words cannot properly be called emphatical: for the stress that is laid on them, is no more than sufficient to convey distinctly the meaning of each word.—From these observations it appears, that the smaller parts of speech, namely, the articles, conjunctions, prepositions, &c. are, in general, obscurely and feebly expressed; that the substantives, verbs, and more significant words, are firmly and distinctly pronounced; and that the emphatical words, those which mark the meaning of a phrase, are pronounced with peculiar stress and energy, though varied according to the degree of their importance.

Emphasis, besides its other offices, is the great regulation of quantity. Though the quantity of our syllables is fixed, in words separately pronounced, yet it is mutable, when these words are ranged in sentences; the long being changed into short, the short into long, according to the importance of the words with regard to meaning; and as it is by emphasis only, that the meaning can be pointed out, emphasis must be the regulator of the quantity. A few examples will make this point very evident.

Pleas'd thoſt ſhalt hear—and learn the ſecret power, &c.

Pleas'd thoſt ſhalt hear—and thou alone ſhalt hear—

Pleas'd thou ſhalt hear—in ſpite of them ſhalt hear—

Pleas'd thoſt ſhalt hear—though not behold the fair—

In the firſt of theſe inſtances, the words *pleas'd* and *hear*, being equally emphatical, are both long; whiſt the two intermediate words, *thoſt* and *ſhalt*, being rapidly paſſed over, as the ſenſe demands, are reduced to a ſhort quantity.

In the ſecond inſtance, the word *thoſt* by being the moſt important, obtains the chief, or rather the ſole emphasis; and thus, it is not only reſtored to its natural long quantity, but obtains from emphasis a ſtill greater degree of length, than when pronounced in its ſeparate ſtate. This greater degree of length, is compensated by the diminution of quantity in the words *pleas'd* and *hear*, which are ſounded ſhorter than in the preceding inſtance. The word *ſhalt* ſtill continues ſhort. Here we may alſo obſerve, that though *thou* is long in the firſt part of the verſe, it becomes ſhort when repeated in the ſecond; on account of the more forcible emphasis belonging to the word *alone*, which follows it.

In the third inſtance, the word *ſhalt* having the emphasis, obtains a long quantity. And though it is impoſſible to prolong the ſound of this word, as it ends in a pure mute, yet in this, as in all ſimilar inſtances, the additional quantity is to be made out by a reſt of the voice, proportioned to the importance of the word. In this inſtance, we may alſo obſerve, that the word *ſhalt*, repeated in the ſecond part of the line, is reduced again to a ſhort quantity.

In the fourth inſtance, the word *hear* placed in oppoſition to the word *behold*, in the latter part of the line, obtains from the ſenſe the chief emphasis, and a proportionate length. The words *thou* and *ſhalt*, are again reduced to ſhort quantities; and the word *pleas'd* lends ſome of the time which it poſſeſſed, to the more important word *hear*.

From theſe inſtances, it is evident, that the quantity of our ſyllables is not fixed; but governed by emphasis.—To obſerve a due measurement of time, on all occaſions, is doubtleſs very difficult; but by inſtruction, attention, and practice, the difficulty may be overcome.

Emphasis changes, not only the quantity of words and ſyllables, but alſo, in particular caſes, the ſeat of the accent. This is demonſtrable from the following examples.

'He ſhall *increase*, but I ſhall *decrease*.' 'There is a difference between giving and *forgiving*.' 'In this ſpecies of compoſition, *plauſibility* is much more eſſential than *probability*.' In theſe examples, the emphasis requires the accent to be placed on ſyllables, to which it does not commonly belong.

In order to acquire the proper management of the emphasis, the great

rule, and indeed the only rule possible to be given, is, that the speaker or reader study to attain a just conception of the force and spirit of the sentiments which he is to pronounce. For to lay the emphasis with exact propriety, is a constant exercise of good sense and attention. It is far from being an inconsiderable attainment. It is one of the greatest trials of a true and just taste; and must arise from feeling delicately ourselves, and from judging accurately, of what is fittest to strike the feelings of others.

There is one error, against which it is particularly proper to caution the learner; namely, that of multiplying emphatical words too much. It is only by a prudent reserve in the use of them, that we can give them any weight. If they recur too often; if a speaker or reader attempts to render every thing which he expresses of high importance, by a multitude of strong emphasis, we soon learn to pay little regard to them. To crowd every sentence with emphatical words, is like crowding all the pages of a book with *Italic characters*, which, as to the effect, is just the same as to use no such distinctions at all.

#### SECTION 4. *Of Pauses.*

PAUSES or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total cessation of the voice, during a perceptible, and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

Pauses are equally necessary to the speaker, and the hearer. To the speaker, that he may take breath, without which he cannot proceed far in delivery; and that he may, by these temporary rests, relieve the organs of speech, which otherwise would be soon tired by continued action: to the hearer, that the ear also may be relieved from the fatigue, which it would otherwise endure from a continuity of sound; and that the understanding may have sufficient time to mark the distinction of sentences, and their several members.

There are two kinds of pauses: first, emphatical pauses; and next, such as mark the distinctions of the sense. An emphatical pause is made, after something has been said of peculiar moment, and on which we desire to fix the hearer's attention. Sometimes, before such a thing is said, we usher it in with a pause of this nature. Such pauses have the same effect as a strong emphasis; and are subject to the same rules; especially to the caution just now given, of not repeating them too frequently. For as they excite uncommon attention, and of course raise expectation, if the importance of the matter is not fully answerable to such expectation, they occasion disappointment and disgust.

But the most frequent and the principal use of pauses, is, to mark the divisions of the sense, and at the same time to allow the speaker to draw

his breath; and the proper and delicate adjustment of such pauses, is one of the most nice and difficult articles of delivery. In all reading, and public speaking, the management of the breath requires a good deal of care, so as not to oblige us to divide words from one another, which have so intimate a connexion, that they ought to be pronounced with the same breath, and without the least separation. Many sentences are miserably mangled, and the force of the emphasis totally lost, by the divisions being made in the wrong place. To avoid this, every one, while he is speaking or reading, should be very careful to provide a full supply of breath for what he is to utter. It is a great mistake to imagine, that the breath must be drawn only at the end of a period, when the voice is allowed to fall. It may easily be gathered at the intervals of the period, when the voice is only suspended for a moment; and, by this management, one may always have a sufficient stock for carrying on the longest sentence, without improper interruptions.

Pausing in reading, and public discourse, must be formed upon the manner in which we utter ourselves in ordinary, sensible conversation; and not upon the stiff artificial manner which we acquire, from reading books according to the common punctuation. It will by no means be sufficient, to attend to the points used in printing; for these are far from marking *all* the pauses which ought to be made in speaking. A mechanical attention to these resting-places has perhaps been one cause of monotony, by leading the reader to a similar tone at every stop, and a uniform cadence at every period. The primary use of points is, to assist the reader in discerning the grammatical construction; and it is only as a secondary object, that they regulate his pronunciation.

To render pauses pleasing and expressive; they must not only be made in the right place, but also accompanied with a proper tone of voice, by which the nature of these pauses is intimated; much more than by the length of them, which can seldom be exactly measured. Sometimes it is only a slight and simple suspension of voice that is proper; sometimes a degree of cadence in the voice is required; and sometimes that peculiar tone and cadence which denote the sentence to be finished. In all these cases, we are to regulate ourselves, by attending to the manner in which nature teaches us to speak, when engaged in real and earnest discourse with others.

It is a general rule, that the suspending pause should be used when the sense is complete; and the closing pause, when it is finished. But there are phrases, in which, though the sense is not completed, the voice takes the closing, rather than the suspending pause; and others, in which the sentence finishes by the pause of suspension.

The closing pause must not be confounded with that fall of the voice, or *cadence*, with which many readers uniformly finish a sentence. Not-

ing is more destructive of propriety and energy than this habit. The tones and inflections of the voice at the close of a sentence, ought to be diversified, according to the general nature of the discourse, and the particular construction and meaning of the sentence. In plain narrative, and especially in argumentation, a small attention to the manner in which we relate a fact, or maintain an argument, in conversation, will show, that it is frequently more proper to raise the voice, than to let it fall, at the end of a sentence. Some sentences are so constructed, that the last words require a stronger emphasis than any of the preceding; while others admit of being closed with a soft and gentle sound. Where there is nothing in the sense which requires the last sound to be elevated or emphatical, an easy fall, sufficient to show that the sense is finished, will be proper. And in pathetic pieces, especially those of the plaintive, tender, or solemn kind, the tone of the passion will often require a still greater cadence of the voice. The best method of correcting a uniform cadence, is frequently to read *select sentences*, in which the style is pointed, and in which *antitheses* are frequently introduced: and argumentative pieces, or such as abound with interrogatives, or earnest exclamation.

### SECTION 5. *Of Tones.*

TONES are different both from emphasis and pauses; consisting in the modulation of the voice, the notes or variations of sound which we employ in the expression of our sentiments,

Emphasis affects particular words and phrases with a degree of tone or inflection of the voice; but tones, peculiarly so called, affect sentences, paragraphs, and sometimes even the whole of a discourse.

To show the use and necessity of tones, we need only observe, that the mind, in communicating its ideas, is in a continual state of activity, emotion, or agitation, from the different effects which those ideas produce in the speaker. Now the end of such communication being, not merely to lay open the ideas, but also the different feelings which they excite in him who utters them, there must be other signs than words, to manifest those feelings; as words uttered in a monotonous manner, can represent only a similar state of mind, perfectly free from all activity or emotion. As the communication of these internal feelings, was of much more consequence in our social intercourse, than the mere conveyance of ideas, the Author of our being did not, as in that conveyance, leave the invention of the language of emotion, to man; but impressed it himself upon our nature in the same manner as he has done with regard to the rest of the animal world; all of which express their various feelings, by various tones. Ours indeed, from the superior rank that we hold, are in a high

degree more comprehensive; as there is not an act of the mind, an exertion of the fancy, or an emotion of the heart, which has not its peculiar tone, or note of the voice, by which it is to be expressed; and which is suited exactly to the degree of internal feeling. It is chiefly in the proper use of these tones, that the life, spirit, beauty, and harmony of delivery consists.

An extract from the beautiful lamentation of David over Saul and Jonathan, may serve as an example of what has been said on this subject. 'The beauty of Israel is slain upon thy high places. How are the mighty fallen! Tell it not in Gath; publish it not in the streets of Askelon: lest the daughters of the Philistines rejoice; lest the daughters of the uncircumcised triumph. Ye mountains of Gilboa, let there be no dew, nor rain upon you, nor fields of offerings; for there the shield of the mighty was vilely cast away; the shield of Saul, as though he had not been anointed with oil!' The first of these divisions expresses sorrow and lamentation; therefore the note is low. The next contains a spirited command, and should be pronounced much higher. The other sentence, in which he makes a pathetic address to the mountains where his friends were slain, must be expressed in a note quite different from the two former; not so low as the first, nor so high as the second, in a manly, firm, and yet plaintive tone.\*

This correct and natural language of the emotions, is not so difficult to be attained, as most readers seem to imagine. If we enter into the spirit of the author's sentiments, as well as into the meaning of his words, we shall not fail to deliver the words in properly varied tones. For there are few people, who speak English without a provincial tone, that have not an accurate use of emphasis, pauses, and tones, when they utter their sentiments in earnest discourse: and the reason that they have not the same use of them, in reading aloud the sentiments of others, may be traced to the very defective and erroneous method, in which the art of reading is taught; whereby all the various, natural, expressive tones of speech, are suppressed, and a few artificial, unmeaning, reading notes, are substituted for them.

But when we recommend to readers an attention to the tone and language of emotions, we must be understood to do it with proper limitation. Moderation is necessary in this point, as it is in other things. For when reading becomes strictly imitative, it assumes a theatrical manner, and must be highly improper, as well as give offence to the hearers; because it is inconsistent with that delicacy and modesty, which, on all occasions, are indispensable.



## CHAPTER II.

## OF VERSIFICATION.

As there are few persons who do not sometimes read poetical composition, it seems necessary to give the student some idea of that part of grammar, which explains the principles of versification; that, in reading poetry, he may be the better able to judge of its correctness, and relish its beauties. When this lively mode of exhibiting nature and sentiment, is perfectly chaste, it is often found to be highly interesting and instructive.

**VERSIFICATION** is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables, according to certain laws.

**Rhyme** is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse, to the last sound or syllable of another.

**Feet and pauses** are the constituent parts of verse. We shall consider these separately.

## OF POETICAL FEET.

A certain number of syllables connected, form a foot. They are called *feet*, because it is by their aid that the voice, as it were, steps along through the verse, in a measured pace; and it is necessary that the syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others. This distinction was made among the ancient Romans, by dividing their syllables into long and short, and ascertaining their quantity by an exact proportion of time in sounding them; the long being to the short, as two to one; and the long syllables, being thus the more important, marked the movement. In English, syllables are divided into accented and unaccented; and the accented syllables being as strongly distinguished from the unaccented, by the peculiar stress of the voice upon them, are equally capable of marking the movement, and pointing out the regular paces of the voice, as the long syllables were by their quantity, among the Romans.

When the feet are formed by an accent on vowels, they are exactly of the same nature as the ancient feet, and have the same just quantity in their syllables. So that, in this respect, we have all that the ancients

had, and something which they had not. We have in fact duplicates of each foot, yet with such a difference, as to fit them for different purposes, to be applied at our pleasure.

Every foot has, from nature, powers peculiar to itself; and it is upon the knowledge and right application of these powers, that the pleasure and effect of numbers chiefly depend.

All feet used in poetry consist either of two, or of three syllables; and are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follows:

## DISSYLLABLE.

A Trochee — ◡

An Iambus ◡ —

A Spondee — —

A Pyrrhic ◡ ◡

## TRISYLLABLE.

A Dactyl — ◡ ◡

An Amphibrach ◡ — ◡

An Anapæst ◡ ◡ —

A Tribrach ◡ ◡ ◡

A Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented: as, 'Hateful, pettish.'

An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented: as, 'Bétray, consist.'

A Spondee has both the words or syllables accented: as, 'The pale moon.'

A Pyrrhic has both the words or syllables unaccented: as, 'On the tall tree.'

A Dactyl has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented: as, 'Labourer, possible.'

An Amphibrach has the first and last syllables unaccented; and the middle one accented: as, 'Delightful, domestic.'

An Anapæst has the two first syllables unaccented, and the last accented: as, 'Contravene, acquiesce.'

A Tribrach has all its syllables unaccented: as, 'Numérable, conquerable.'

Some of these feet may be denominated *principal* feet; as pieces of poetry may be wholly, or chiefly formed of any of them. Such are the Iambus, Trochee, Dactyl, and Anapæst. The others may be termed *secondary* feet, because their chief use is to diversify the numbers, and to improve the verse.

We shall first explain the nature of the principal feet.

IAMBIC verses may be divided into several species, according to the number of feet or syllables of which they are composed.

1. The shortest form of the English Iambic consists of an Iambus, with an additional short syllable: as,

Disdaining,  
Complaining,  
Consenting,  
Repenting.

We have no poem of this measure, but it may be met with in *stanzas*. The Iambus, with this addition, coincides with the Amphibrach.

2. The second form of our Iambic is also too short to be continued through any great number of lines. It consists of *two* Iambuses.

What place is here!

What scenes appear!

To me the rose

No longer glows.

It sometimes takes, or may take, an additional short syllable: as,

Upon a mountain

Beside a fountain.

3. The third form consists of *three* Iambuses,

In places far or near,

Or famous or obscure,

Where wholesome is the air,

Or where the most impure.

It sometimes admits of an additional short syllable: as,

Our hearts no longer languish.

4. The fourth form is made up of *four* Iambuses.

And may at last my weary age,

Find out the peaceful hermitage.

5. The fifth species of English Iambic, consists of *five* Iambuses.

How lov'd, how valu'd once, avails thee not,

To whom related, or by whom begot:

A heap of dust alone remains of thee;

'Tis all thou art, and all the proud shall be.

Be wise to-day, 'tis madness to defer:

Next day the fatal precedent will plead;

Thus on, till wisdom is pushed out of life.

This is called the *Heroic* measure. In its simplest form it consists of five Iambuses; but by the admission of other feet, as Trochees, Dactyls, Anapæsts, &c. it is capable of many varieties. Indeed, most of the English common measure may be varied in the same way, as well as by the different position of their pauses.

5. The sixth form of our Iambic is commonly called the *Alexandrine* measure. It consists of *six* Iambuses.

For thou art but of dust; be humble and be wise.

The Alexandrine is sometimes introduced into heroic rhyme; and when used sparingly, and with judgment, occasions an agreeable variety.

The seas shall waste, the skies in smoke decay,

Rocks fall to dust, and mountains melt away;

But fix'd his word, his saving power remains:

*Thy realm for ever lasts, thy own Messiah reigns.*

7. The seventh and last form of our Iambic measure, is made up of seven Iambuses.

The Lōrd dēscēndēd frōm ābōve,  
And bōw'd thē hēāvēns high.

This was anciently written in one line; but it is now broken into two; and the first containing four feet, and the second three:

Whēn all thy mērciēs, Ō my Gōd!

My rising soul surveys,

Transported with the view, I'm lost

In wonder, love, and praise.

In all these measures, the accents are to be placed on even syllables; and every line considered by itself, is, in general, more melodious, as this rule is more strictly observed.

TROCHAIC verse is of several kinds.

1. The shortest Trochaic verse in our language, consists of one Trochee and a long syllable.

Tūmūlt cēase,  
Sink to peace.

This measure is defective in dignity, and can seldom be used on serious occasions.

2. The second English form of the Trochaic consists of *two* feet; and is likewise so brief, that it is rarely used for any very serious purpose.

On thē mōūntāin  
By a fōūntain.

It sometimes contains two feet or trochees, with an additional long syllable: as,

In thē dāys ōf ōld  
Fables plainly told.

2. The third species consists of *three* trochees: as,

Whēn ōur hēarts āre mōūrning:

or of three trochees, with an additional long syllable: as,

Rēstlēss mōrtāls tōil fōr nought;  
Bliss in vain from earth is sought;  
Bliss, a natīve of the sky,  
Never wanders. Mortals, try;  
There you cannot seek in vain;  
For to seek her is to gain.

4. The fourth Trochaic species consists of *four* trochees; as,

Rōund tis rōars thē tēmpēst lōuder.

This form may take an additional long syllable, as follows:

Idlē āftēr dinnēr in hīs chāir,  
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

But this measure is very uncommon.

5. The fifth Trochaic species is likewise uncommon. It is composed of five trochees.

All that walk on foot or ride in chariots,

All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. The sixth form of the English Trochaic consists of six trochees, as,  
On a mountain, stretch'd beneath a hoary willow,  
Lay a shepherd swain, and view'd the rolling billow.

This seems to be the longest Trochaic line that our language admits. In all these Trochaic measures, the accent is to be placed on the odd syllables.

The DACTYLIC measure being very uncommon, we shall give only one example of one species of it:

From the low pleasures of this fallen nature,

Rise we to higher, &c.

ANAPÆSTIC verses are divided into several species:

1. The shortest anapæstic verse must be a *single* anapæst: as,  
But in vain,  
They complain.

This measure is, however, ambiguous; for, by laying the stress of the voice on the first and third syllables, we might make a trochaic. And therefore the first and simplest form of our genuine Anapæstic verse, is made up of *two* Anapæsts: as,

But his courage 'gan fail,

For no arts could avail.

This form admits of an additional short syllable.

Then his courage 'gan fail him,

For no arts could avail him.

2. The second species consists of *three* Anapæsts.

O ye woods, spread your branches apace;

To your deepest recesses I fly;

I would hude with the beasts of the chase;

I would vanish from every eye.

This is a very pleasing measure, and much used, both in solemn and cheerful subjects.

3. The third kind of English Anapæstic, consists of *four* Anapæsts.

May I govern my passions with absolute sway;

And grow wiser and better as life wears away.

This measure will admit of a short syllable at the end; as,

On the warm cheek of youth, smiles and roses are blending.

The preceding are the different kinds of the principal feet, in their more simple forms. They are capable of numerous variations, by the intermixture of those feet with each other; and by the admission of the secondary feet.

We have observed, that English verse is composed of feet formed by accent; and that when the accent falls on vowels, the feet are equivalent to those formed by quantity. That the student may clearly perceive this difference, we shall produce a specimen of each kind.

O'er héaps of rûins stalk'd thê stâtelý hind.

Here we see the accent is upon the vowel in each second syllable. In the following line, we shall find the same Iambic movement, but formed by accent on consonants, except the last syllable.

Then rústling, cráckling, cráshing thúnder dówn.

Here the time of the short accented syllables, is compensated by a short pause, at the end of each word to which they belong.

We now proceed to show the manner in which poetry is varied and improved, by the admission of secondary feet into its composition.

Múrmuring, and with him fled the shades of night.

The first foot here is a Dactyl; the rest are Iambics.

O'er mány á frózen, mány a fiery Alp.

This line contains three Amphibrachs mixed with Iambics.

Innúmérablé before th' Almighty's throne.

Here, in the second foot, we find a Tribrach.

Sêe thê bôld yóuth strain úp the thréat'ning stêep.

In this line, the first foot is a Trochee; the second a genuine Spondee by quantity; the third a Spondee by accent.

In the following line, the first foot is a Pyrrhic, the second a Spondee.

Thát ón wéak wings from far pursues your flight.

From the preceding view of English versification, we may see what a copious stock of materials it possesses. For we are not only allowed the use of all the ancient poetic feet, in our heroic measure, but we have, as before observed, duplicates of each, agreeing in movement, though differing in measure,\* and which make different impressions on the ear; an opulence peculiar to our language, and which may be the source of a boundless variety.

#### OF POETICAL PAUSES.

There are two sorts of pauses, one for sense, and one for melody, perfectly distinct from each other. The former may be called *sentential*, the latter *harmonic* pauses.

The sentential pauses are those which are known to us by the name of stops, and which have names given them; as the comma, semicolon, colon, and period.

\* Movement and measure are thus distinguished. *Movement* expresses the progressive order of sounds, whether from strong to weak, from long to short, or *vice versa*. *Measure* signifies the proportion of time, both in sounds and pauses.

The harmonic pauses may be subdivided into the *final* pause, and the *cæsural* pause. These sometimes coincide with the sentential pause, sometimes have an independent state, that is, exist where there is no stop in the sense.

The final pause takes place at the end of the line, closes the verse, and marks the measure: the cæsural divides it into equal or unequal parts.

The final pause preserves the melody, without interfering with the sense. For the pause itself perfectly marks the bound of the metre; and being made only by a suspension of the voice, not by any change of note, it can never affect the sense. This is not the only advantage gained to numbers, by this final pause or stop of suspension. It also prevents that monotony, that sameness of note at the end of lines, which, however pleasing to a rude, is disgusting to a delicate ear. For as this final pause has no peculiar note of its own, but always takes that which belongs to the preceding word, it changes continually with the matter, and is as various as the sense.

It is the final pause which alone, on many occasions, marks the difference between prose and verse; which will be evident from the following arrangement of a few poetical lines.

"Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit of that forbidden tree,  
whose mortal taste brought death into the world, and all our wo, with loss  
of Eden, till one greater man restore us, and regain the blissful seat, sing  
heavenly muse!"

A stranger to the poem would not easily discover that this was verse; but would take it for poetical prose. By properly adjusting the final pause, we shall restore the passage to its true state of verse.

Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit  
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste  
Brought death into the world, and all our wo,  
With loss of Eden, till one greater man  
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,  
Sing, heavenly muse!

These examples show the necessity of reading blank verse, in such a manner, as to make every line sensible to the ear; for, what is the use of melody, or for what end has the poet composed in verse, if, in reading his lines, we suppress his numbers, by omitting the final pause; and degrade them, by our pronunciation, into mere prose?

The Cæsura is commonly on the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable of heroic verse.

On the fourth syllable, or at the end of the second foot: as,  
The silver eel" in shining volumes roll'd,  
The yellow carp" in scales bedropp'd with gold.

On the fifth syllable, or in the middle of the third foot: as,

Round broken columns" clasping ivy twin'd,

O'er heaps of ruin" stalk'd the stately hind.

On the sixth syllable, or at the end of the third foot: as,

Oh say what stranger cause" yet unexplor'd,

Could make a gentle belle" reject a lord.

A line may be divided into three portions, by two cæsuras: as,

Outstretch'd he lay" on the cold ground" and oft"

Lobk'd up to heav'n.

There is another mode of dividing lines, well suited to the nature of the couplet, by introducing semi-pauses, which divide the line into four pauses. This semi-pause may be called a *demi-cæsura*.

The following lines admit of, and exemplify it:

Glow's while he read's" but trembles" as he writes.

Reason' the card" but passion' is the gale.

Rides' in the whirlwind" and directs' the storm.

#### OF MELODY, HARMONY, AND EXPRESSION.

Having shown the general nature of feet and pauses, the constituent parts of verse, we shall now point out, more particularly, their use and importance.

Melody, harmony, and expression, are the three great objects of poetic numbers. By melody, is meant, a pleasing effect produced on the ear, from an apt arrangement of the constituent parts of verse, according to the laws of measure and movement. By harmony, an effect produced by an action of the mind; in comparing the different members of a verse with each other, and perceiving a due and beautiful proportion between them. By expression, such a choice and arrangement of the constituent parts of verse, as serve to enforce and illustrate the thought or the sentiment.

We shall consider each of these three objects in versification, both with respect to the feet and the pauses.

1st. With regard to melody.

From the examples which we have given of verses composed in all the principal feet, it is evident that a considerable portion of melody is found in each of them, though in different degrees. Verses made up of pure Iambics have an excellent melody.

That the final and cæsural pauses contribute to melody, cannot be doubted by any person who reviews the instances which we have already given of those pauses. To form lines of the first melody, the cæsura must be at the end of the second, or of the third foot, or in the middle of the third.



2d, With respect to harmony.

Verses composed of Iambics have indeed a fine harmony; but, as the stress of the voice, in repeating such verses, is always in the same places, that is, on every second syllable, such a uniformity would disgust the ear in a long succession; and therefore such changes were sought for, as might introduce the pleasure of variety, without prejudice to melody; or which might even contribute to its improvement. Of this nature was the introduction of the Trochee, to form the first foot of an heroic verse: as,

Favours to none, to all she smiles extends,  
Of't she rejects, but never once offends.

Each of these lines begins with a Trochee; the remaining feet are in the Iambic movement. In the following line of the same movement, the fourth foot is a Trochee.

All these our notions vain, sees and derides.

The next change admitted for the sake of variety, without prejudice to melody, is the intermixture of Pyrrhics and Spondees; in which, two impressions in the one foot make up for the want of one in the other; and two long syllables compensate two short ones, so as to make the sum of the quantity of the two feet, equal to two Iambics.

On the green bank to look into the clear  
Smooth lake that to resemble'd another sky.  
Stood rul'd stood vast infinitude confin'd.

The next variety admitted is that of the Amphibrach.

Which many a bard had chanted many a day.

In this line, we find that two of the feet are Amphibrachs; and three, Iambics.

We have before shown that the cæsura improves the melody of verse; and we shall now speak of its other more important office, that of being the chief source of harmony in numbers.

The first and lowest perception of harmony, by means of the cæsura, arises from comparing two members of the same line with each other, divided in the manner to be seen in the instances before mentioned; because the beauty of proportion in the members, according to each of these divisions, founded in nature; being as one to two—two to three—or, three to two.

The next degree arises from comparing the members of a couplet, or two contiguous lines: as,

See the bold youth "strain up the threatening steep,  
Rush thro' the thickets" down the valleys sweep.

Here we find the cæsura of the first line, at the end of the second foot; and in the middle of the third foot, in the last line,

Hang o'er their coursers' heads" with eager speed,  
And earth rolls back" beneath the flying steed.

In this couplet, the cæsura is at the end of the third foot, in the first line; and of the second, in the latter line.

The next perception of harmony arises from comparing a greater number of lines, and observing the relative proportion of the couplets to each other, in point of similarity and diversity: as,

"Thy forests Windsor" and thy green retreats,  
 At once the monarch's" and the muse's seats;  
 Invite my lays." Be present Sylvan maids,  
 Unlock your springs" and open all your shades.  
 Not half so swift" the trembling doves can fly,  
 When the fierce eagle" cleaves the liquid sky;  
 Not half so swiftly" the fierce eagle moves,  
 When through the clouds" he drives the trembling doves.

In this way, the comparison of lines variously apportioned by the different seats of the three cæsuras, may be the source of a great variety of harmony, consistent with the finest melody. This is still increased by the introduction of two cæsuras, and much more by that of semi-pauses. The semi-pauses double every where the terms of comparison; give a more distinct view of the whole and the parts; afford new proportions of measurement, and an ampler scope for diversity and equality, those sources of beauty in harmony.

Warms' in the sun" refreshes' in the breeze,  
 Glows' in the stars" and blossoms, in the trees;  
 Lives' through all life" extends' through all extent,  
 Spreads' undivided" operates' unspent.

3d. The last object in versification regards expression.

When men express their sentiments by words, they naturally fall into that sort of movement of the voice, which is consonant to that produced by the emotion in the mind; and the Dactylic or Anapestic, the Trochaic, Iambic, or Spondaic, prevails even in common discourse, according to the different nature of the sentiments expressed. To imitate nature, therefore, the poet, in arranging his words in the artificial composition of verse, must take care to make the movement correspond to the sentiment, by the proper use of the several kinds of feet: and this is the first and most general source of expression in numbers.

That a judicious management of the feet and pauses, may be peculiarly expressive of particular operations and sentiments, will sufficiently appear to the learner, by a few select examples under each of those heads.

In the following instance, the vast dimensions of Satan are shown by an uncommon succession of long syllables, which detain us to survey the huge arch fiend, in his fixed posture.

So strētch' h out hūge in lēngth the ārch fiend lāy.

The next example affords instances of the power of a Trochee beginning a line, when succeeded by an Iambus.

————— and sheer within

Lights on his feet: as when a prowling wolf

Leaps o'er the fence with ease into the fold.

The Trochee which begins the line shows Satan in the act of lighting: the Iambus that follows, fixes him—'Lights on his feet.'

The same artifice, in the beginning of the next lute, makes us see the wolf—'leap o'er the fence.'—But as the mere act of leaping over the fence, is not the only circumstance to be attended to, but also the facility with which it is done, this is strongly marked, not only by the smooth foot which follows—'with ease'—itself very expressive, but likewise by a Pyrrhic preceding the last foot—'into the fold'—which indeed carries the wolf—'with ease into the fold.'

The following instances show the effects produced by cæsuras, so placed as to divide the line into very unequal portions: such as that after the first, and before the last semipede.

————— thus with the year

Seasons return, but not to me returns

Day" or the sweet approach of even or morn.

Here the cæsura after the first semipede *Day*, stops us unexpectedly, and forcibly impresses the imagination with the greatness of the author's loss, the loss of sight.

No sooner had th' Almighty ceas'd, but all

The multitude of angels, with a shout

Loud" as from numbers without number" sweet

As from blest voices uttering joy. —————

There is something very striking in this uncommon cæsura, which suddenly stops the reader, to reflect on the importance of a particular word.

We shall close the subject, with an example containing the united powers of many of the principles which have been explained.

Dire was the tossing" deep the groans" Despair"

Tended the sick" busiest from couch to couch"

And over them triumphant death" his dart"

Shook" but delay'd to strike.

Many of the rules and observations respecting Prosody, are taken from 'Sheridan's Art of Reading;' to which book the Compiler refers the ingenious student, for more extensive information on the subject.

## PUNCTUATION.\*

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense, and an accurate pronunciation require.

The Comma represents the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, double that of the semicolon; and the Period, double that of the colon.

The precise quantity or duration of each pause, cannot be defined; for it varies with the time of the whole. The same composition may be rehearsed in a quicker or a slower time; but the proportion between the pauses should be ever invariable.

In order more clearly to determine the proper application of the points, we must distinguish between an *imperfect phrase*, a *simple sentence*, and a *compound sentence*.

An imperfect phrase contains no assertion, or does not amount to a proposition or sentence: as, 'Therefore; in haste; studious of praise.'

A simple sentence has but one subject, and one finite verb, expressed or implied: as, 'Temperance preserves health.'

A compound sentence has more than one subject, or one finite verb, either expressed or understood; or it consists of two or more simple sentences connected together: as, 'Good nature mends and beautifies all objects;' 'Virtue refines the affections, but vice debases them.'

In a sentence, the subject and the verb, or either of them, may be accompanied with several adjuncts: as, the object, the end, the circumstance of time, place, manner, and the like: and the subject or verb may be either immediately connected with them, or mediately; that is, by being connected with something which is connected with some other, and so on: as, 'The mind, unoccupied with useful knowledge, becomes a magazine of trifles and follies.'

Members of sentences may be divided into simple and compound members.

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\* As punctuation is intended to aid both the sense, and the pronunciation of a sentence, it could not have been exclusively discussed under the part of Syntax, or of Prosody. The nature of the subject, its extent and importance, and the grammatical knowledge which it presupposes, have induced us to make it a distinct and subsequent article.

## CHAPTER I.

## OF THE COMMA.

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence, which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

RULE I. With respect to a simple sentence, the several words of which it consists have so near a relation to each other, that, in general, no points are requisite, except a full stop at the end of it: as, 'The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.' 'Every part of matter swarms with living creatures.'

A simple sentence, however, when it is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb: as, 'The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language.' 'To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character.'

RULE II. When the connexion of the different parts of a simple sentence is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually introduced before the beginning, and at the end of this phrase: as, 'I remember, *with gratitude*, his goodness to me.' 'His work is, *in many respects*, very imperfect. It is, *therefore*, not much approved.' But when these interruptions are slight and unimportant, the comma is better omitted: as, 'Flattery is *certainly* pernicious;' 'There is *surely* a pleasure in beneficence.'

In the generality of compound sentences, there is frequent occasion for commas. This will appear from the following rules; some of which apply to simple, as well as to compound sentences.

RULE III. When two or more nouns occur in the same construction, they are parted by a comma: as, 'Reason, virtue, answer one great aim;' 'The husband, wife, and children, suffered extremely.\*' 'They took away their furniture, clothes, and stock in trade.' 'He is alternately supported by his father, his uncle, and his elder brother.'

From this rule there is mostly an exception, with regard to two nouns closely connected by a conjunction: as, 'Virtue *and* vice form a strong contrast to each other;' 'Libertines call religion bigotry or superstition;' 'There is a natural difference between merit *and* demerit, virtue *and* vice,

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\* As a considerable pause in pronunciation, is necessary between the last noun and the verb, a comma should be inserted to denote it. But as no pause is allowable between the last adjective and the noun, under Rule IV. the comma is there properly omitted. See WALKER'S *Elements of Elocution*.

wisdom *and* folly.' But if the parts connected are not short, a comma may be inserted, though the conjunction is expressed: as, 'Romances may be said to be miserable rhapsodies, *or* dangerous incentives to evil;' 'Intemperance destroys the strength of our bodies, *and* the vigor of our minds.'

RULE IV. Two or more adjectives belonging to the same substantive are likewise separated by commas: as, 'Plain, honest truth, wants no artificial covering;' 'David was a brave, wise, and pious man;' 'A woman, gentle, sensible, well-educated, and religious;' 'The most innocent pleasures are the sweetest, the most rational, the most affecting, and the most lasting.'

But two adjectives, immediately connected by a conjunction, are not separated by a comma: as, 'True worth is modest *and* retired;' 'Truth is far *and* artless, simple *and* sincere, uniform *and* consistent.' 'We must be wise *or* foolish; there is no medium.'

RULE V. Two or more verbs, having the same nominative case, and immediately following one another, are also separated by commas: as, 'Virtue supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity;' 'In a letter, we may advise, exhort, comfort, request, and discuss.'

Two verbs immediately connected by a conjunction, are an exception to the above rule; as, 'The study of natural history expands *and* elevates the mind;' 'Whether we eat *or* drink, labour *or* sleep, we should be moderate.'

Two or more participles are subject to a similar rule, and exception: as, 'A man, fearing, serving, and loving his Creator;' 'He was happy in being loved, esteemed, and respected;' 'By being admired *and* flattered, we are often corrupted.'

RULE VI. Two or more adverbs immediately succeeding one another, must be separated by commas: as, 'We are fearfully, wonderfully framed;' 'Success generally depends on acting prudently, steadily, and vigorously, in what we undertake.'

But when two adverbs are joined by a conjunction, they are not parted by the comma: as, 'Some men sin deliberately *and* presumptuously;' 'There is no middle state; we must live virtuously *or* viciously.'

RULE VII. When participles are followed by something that depends on them, they are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma: as, 'The king, *approving the plan*, put it in execution;' 'His talents, *formed for great enterprises*, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous;' 'All mankind compose one family, *assembled* under the eye of one common Father.'

RULE VIII. When a conjunction is divided by a phrase or sentence from the verb to which it belongs, such intervening phrase has usually a

comma at each extremity: as, 'They set out early, *and*, before the close of the day, arrived at the destined place.'

RULE IX. Expressions in a direct address, are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas: as, '*My son*, give me thy heart;' 'I am obliged to you, *my friends*, for your many favours.'

RULE X. The case absolute, and the infinitive mode absolute, are separated by commas from the body of the sentence: as, 'His father dying, he succeeded to the estate;' 'At length, their ministry performed, and race well run, they left the world in peace;' 'To confess the truth, I was much in fault.'

RULE XI. Nouns in apposition, that is, nouns added to other nouns in the same case, by way of explication or illustration, when accompanied with adjuncts, are set off by commas: as, 'Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal and knowledge;' 'The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters in the sun.'

But if such nouns are single, or only form a proper name, they are not divided: as, 'Paul the apostle;' 'The emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book.'

RULE XII. Simple members of sentences connected by comparatives, are for the most part distinguished by a comma: as, '*As* the heart panteth after the water brooks, *so* doth my soul pant after thee;' '*Better* is a dinner of herbs with love, *than* a stalled ox and hatred with it.'

If the members in comparative sentences are short, the comma is, in general, better omitted: as, 'How much *better* is it to get wisdom *than* gold!' 'Mankind act *oftener* from caprice *than* reason.'

RULE XIII. When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some marked variety, they require to be distinguished by a comma: as,

'Tho' deep, yet clear; tho' gentle, yet not dull;

Strong, without rage; without o'erflowing, full.'

'Good men, in this frail, imperfect state, are often found, not only in union *with*, but in opposition *to*, the views and conduct of one another.'

Sometimes when the word with which the last preposition agrees, is single, it is better to omit the comma before it: as, 'Many states were in alliance *with*, and under the protection *of* Rome.'

The same rule and restrictions must be applied when two or more nouns refer to the same preposition: as, 'He was composed both under the threatening, and at the approach, *of* a cruel and lingering death;' 'He was not only the king, but the father *of* his people.'

RULE XIV. A remarkable expression, or a short observation somewhat in the manner of a quotation, may be properly marked with a comma: as, 'It hurts a man's pride to say, I do not know;' 'Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves.'

RULE XV. Relative pronouns are connective words, and generally ad-

omit a comma before them: as, 'He preaches sublimely, *who* lives a sober, righteous, and pious life;' 'There is no charm in the female sex, *which* can supply the place of virtue.'

But when two members, or phrases, are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the comma should be omitted: as, 'Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make;' 'A man who is of a detracting spirit, will misconstrue the most innocent words that can be put together.' In the latter example, the assertion is not of 'a man in general,' but of 'a man who is of a detracting spirit;' and therefore they should not be separated.

The fifteenth rule applies equally to cases in which the relative is not expressed, but understood: as, 'It was from piety, warm and unaffected, that his morals derived strength.' 'This sentiment, habitual and strong, influenced his *whole* conduct.' In both of these examples, the relative and verb *which was*, are understood.

**RULE XVI.** A simple member of a sentence, contained within another, or following another, must be distinguished by the comma: as, 'To improve time whilst we are blessed with health, will smooth the bed of sickness.' 'Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity and the evils of human life, we make that vanity, and we increase those evils.'

If, however, the members succeeding each other, are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary: as, 'Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness.'

When a verb in the infinitive mode, follows its governing verb, with several words between them, those words should generally have a comma at the end of them; as, 'It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another.'

Several verbs in the infinitive mode, having a common dependence, and succeeding one another, are also divided by commas: as, 'To relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the innocent, to reward the deserving, are humane and noble employments.'

**RULE XVII.** When the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mode, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb, by a comma: as, 'The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men.' 'The first and most obvious remedy against the infliction, is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men.'

**RULE XVIII.** When adjuncts or circumstances are of importance, and often when the natural order of them is inverted, they may be set off by commas: as, 'Virtue must be formed and supported, not by unfrequent acts, but by daily and repeated exertions.' 'Vices, like shadows, towards the evening of life, grow great and monstrous.' 'Our interests are interwoven by threads innumerable;' 'By threads innumerable, our interests are interwoven.'



RULE XIX. Where a verb is understood, a comma may often be properly introduced. This is a general rule, which, besides comprising some of the preceding rules, will apply to many cases not determined by any of them: as, 'From law arises security; from security, curiosity, from curiosity, knowledge.' In this example, the verb 'arises' is understood before 'curiosity' and 'knowledge;' at which words a considerable pause is necessary.

RULE XX. The words, *now, nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the next place, in short*, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma: as, 'Remember thy best and first friend; *formerly*, the supporter of thy infancy, and the guide of thy childhood; *now*, the guardian of thy youth, and the hope of thy coming years.' 'He feared want, *hence*, he over-valued riches.' 'This conduct may heal the difference, *now*, it may constantly prevent any in future.' 'Finally, I shall only repeat what has been often justly said.' 'If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit; *so*, if youth be trifled away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miserable.'

In many of the foregoing rules and examples, great regard must be paid to the length of the clauses, and the proportion which they bear to one another. An attention to the sense of any passage, and to the clear, easy communication of it, will, it is presumed, with the aid of the preceding rules, enable the student to adjust the proper pauses, and the places for inserting the commas.

## CHAPTER II.

### OF THE SEMICOLON.

THE Semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other, as those which are distinguished by a colon.

The semicolon is sometimes used, when the preceding member of the sentence does not of itself give a complete sense, but depends on the following clause: and sometimes when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding one: as in the following instances: 'As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in every thing that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them when it is governed by vanity and folly.'

'Experience teaches us, that an entire retreat from worldly affairs, is not what religion requires; nor does it even enjoin a long retreat from them.'

'Straws swim upon the surface, but pearls lie at the bottom.'

'Philosophers assert, that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries, of which we have not the least idea.'

### CHAPTER III.

## OF THE COLON.

THE Colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as separate distinct sentences.

The Colon may be properly applied in the three following cases.

1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by some supplemental remark, or further illustration of the subject: as, 'Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid.' 'Nature confessed some atonement to be necessary: the gospel discovers that the necessary atonement is made.'

2. When several semicolons have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the connecting or concluding sentiment: as, 'A divine legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an almighty governor, stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the world, which support integrity, and check guilt.'

3. The Colon is commonly used when an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced: as, 'The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: "God is love." 'He was often heard to say: "I have done with the world, and I am willing to leave it."'

The propriety of using a colon, or semicolon, is sometimes determined by a conjunction's being expressed, or not expressed: as, 'Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness: there is no such thing in the world.' 'Do not flatter yourselves with the hope of perfect happiness; for there is no such thing in the world.'

## CHAPTER IV.

## OF THE PERIOD.

WHEN a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a Period.

Some sentences are independent of each other, both in their sense and construction: as, 'Fear God. Honour the king. Have charity towards all men.' Others are independent only in their grammatical construction: as, 'The Supreme Being changes not, either in his desire to promote our happiness, or in the plan of his administration. One light always shines upon us from above. One clear and direct path is always pointed out to man.'

A period may sometimes be admitted between two sentences, though they are joined by a disjunctive or copulative conjunction. For the quality of the point does not always depend on the connective particle, but on the sense and structure of sentences: as, 'Recreations, though they may be of an innocent kind, require steady government, to keep them within a due and limited province. But such as are of an irregular and vicious nature, are not to be governed, but to be banished from every well-regulated mind.'

'He who lifts himself up to the observation and notice of the world, is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part.'

The period should be used after every abbreviated word: as, 'M. S. P. S. N. B. A. D. O. S. N. S.' &c.

## CHAPTER V.

*Of the Dash, Notes of Interrogation and Exclamation, &c.*

## THE DASH.

The Dash, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers, may be introduced with propriety, where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment: as, 'If thou art he, so much respected once—but, oh! how fallen! how degraded!' 'If acting conformably to the will of our Creator;—if promoting the welfare of mankind around us;—if securing our own happiness;—are objects of the highest moment:—then we are loudly called upon, to cultivate and extend the great interests of religion and virtue.'

'Here lies the great—False marble, where?'

Nothing but sordid dust lies here.'

Besides the points which mark the pauses in discourse, there are others, which denote a different modulation of voice, in correspondence to the sense. These are,

The Interrogation point,	?
The Exclamation point,	!
The Parenthesis,	( )

#### INTERROGATION.

A note of Interrogation is used at the end of an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked: as, 'Who will accompany me?' 'Shall we always be friends?'

Questions which a person asks himself in contemplation, ought to be terminated by points of interrogation: as, 'Who adorned the heavens with such exquisite beauty?' 'At whose command do the planets perform their constant revolutions?'

A point of interrogation is improper after sentences which are not questions, but only expressions of admiration, or of some other emotion.

'How many instances have we of chastity and excellence in the fair sex?'

'With what prudence does the son of Sirach advise us in the choice of our companions?'

A note of interrogation should not be employed, in cases where it is only said a question has been asked, and where the words are not used as a question. 'The Cyprians asked me, why I wept.' To give this sentence the interrogative form, it should be expressed thus: 'The Cyprians said to me, 'Why dost thou weep?''

#### EXCLAMATION.

The note of Exclamation is applied to expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, &c. and also to invocations or address: as, 'My friend! this conduct amazes me!' 'Bless the Lord, O my soul! and forget not all his benefits!'

'Oh! had we both our humble state maintain'd,  
And safe in peace and poverty remain'd!'

'Hear me, O Lord! for thy loving kindness is great!'

It is difficult, in some cases, to distinguish between an interrogative and exclamatory sentence; but a sentence, in which any wonder or admiration is expressed, and no answer either expected or implied, may be always properly terminated by a note of exclamation: as, 'How much vanity in the pursuits of men!' 'Who can sufficiently express the goodness of our Creator!' 'What is more amiable than virtue!'

The interrogation and exclamation points are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent in that respect to a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense may require. They mark an elevation of the voice.

The utility of the points of Interrogation and Exclamation, appears from the following examples, in which the meaning is signified and discriminated solely by the points.

‘What condescension!’

‘What condescension?’

‘How great was the sacrifice!’

‘How great was the sacrifice?’

#### PARENTHESIS.

A Parenthesis is a clause containing some necessary information, or useful remark, introduced into the body of a sentence obliquely; and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction: as,

‘Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)

Virtue alone is happiness below.’

‘And was the ransom paid? It was; and paid

(What can exalt his bounty more?) for thee.’

‘To gain a posthumous reputation, is to save four or five letters (for what is a name besides?) from oblivion.’ ‘Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth?’

If the incidental clause is short, or perfectly coincides with the rest of the sentence, it is not proper to use the parenthetical characters. The following instances are therefore improper uses of the parenthesis. ‘Speak you (who saw) his wonders in the deep.’ ‘Every planet (as the Creator has made nothing in vain) is most probably inhabited.’ ‘He found them asleep again; (for their eyes were heavy;) neither knew they what to answer him.’

The parenthesis marks a moderate depression of the voice, and may be accompanied with every point which the sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were omitted. It ought to terminate with the same kind of stop which the member has, that precedes; and to contain that stop within the parenthetical marks. We must, however, except cases of interrogation and exclamation: as, ‘While they wish to please, (and why should they not wish it?) they disdain dishonorable means!’ ‘It was represented by an analogy, (Oh, how inadequate!) which was borrowed from paganism.’ *See the Octavo Grammar, on this subject.*

There are other characters, which are frequently made use of in composition, and which may be explained in this place, viz:

An Apostrophe, marked thus ' is used to abbreviate or shorten a word : as, 'tis for *it is*; tho' for *though*; e'en for *even*; judg'd for *judged*. Its chief use is to show the genitive case of nouns: as, 'A man's property; a woman's ornament.'

A Caret, marked thus ^ is placed where some word happens to be left out in writing, and which is inserted over the line. This mark is also called a circumflex, when placed over a particular vowel, to denote a long syllable.

A Hyphen, marked thus - is employed in connecting compounded words; as, 'Lap-dog, tea-pot, pre-existence, self-love, to-morrow, mother-in-law.'

It is also used when a word is divided, and the former part is written or printed at the end of one line, and the latter part at the beginning of another. In this case, it is placed at the end of the first line, not at the beginning of the second.

The Acute Accent, marked thus ' : as, 'Fancy.' The Grave thus ` as, 'Favour.'

In English, the Accentual marks are chiefly used in spelling-books and dictionaries, to mark the syllables which require a particular stress of the voice in pronunciation.

The stress is laid on long and short syllables indiscriminately. In order to distinguish the one from the other, some writers of dictionaries have placed the grave on the former, and the acute on the latter, in this manner: *Mînor, mîneral, lively, livîd, rival, river.*'

The proper mark to distinguish a long syllable, is this ~ : as, 'Rôsy:' and a short one this ^ : as, 'Fôlly.' This last mark is called a breve.

A Diæresis, thus marked ¨ consists of two points placed over one of the two vowels that would otherwise make a diphthong, and parts them into two syllables: as, 'Creãtor, coãdjutor.'


A Section, marked thus †, is the division of a discourse, or chapter, into less parts or portions.

A Paragraph ¶ denotes the beginning of a new subject, or a sentence not connected with the foregoing. This character is chiefly used in the Old, and in the New Testaments.

A Quotation " ". Two inverted commas are generally placed at the beginning of a phrase or a passage, which is quoted or transcribed from the speaker or author in his own words; and two comas in their direct position, are placed at the conclusion: as,

"The proper study of mankind is man."

Crotchets or Brackets [ ] serve to enclose a word or sentence, which is to be explained in a note, or the explanation, itself, or a word or a sentence which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to rectify some mistake.

An Index or Hand  points out a remarkable passage, or something that requires particular attention.

A Brace } is used in poetry at the end of a triplet or three lines, which have the same rhyme.

Braces are also used to connect a number of words with one common term, and are introduced to prevent a repetition in writing or printing.

An Asterisk, or little star \*, directs the reader to some note in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Two or three asterisks generally denote the omission of some letters in a word, or of some bold or indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.

An Ellipsis — is also used, when some letters in a word, or some words in a verse, are omitted: as, 'The k—g,' for 'the king.'

An Obelisk, which is marked thus †, and Parallels thus ||, together with the letters of the Alphabet, and figures, are used as references to the margin, or bottom of the page.

#### PARAGRAPHS.

It may not be improper to insert, in this place, a few general directions respecting the division of a composition into paragraphs.

Different subjects, unless they are very short, or very numerous in small compass, should be separated into paragraphs.

When one subject is continued to a considerable length, the larger divisions of it should be put into paragraphs. And it will have a good effect to form the breaks, when it can properly be done, at sentiments of the most weight, or that call for peculiar attention.

The facts, premises, and conclusions, of a subject, sometimes naturally point out the separations into paragraphs: and each of these, when of great length, will again require subdivisions at their most distinctive parts.

In cases which require a connected subject to be formed into several paragraphs, a suitable turn of expression, exhibiting the connexion of the broken parts, will give beauty and force to the division. See the *Octavo Grammar*.

#### DIRECTIONS respecting the use of CAPITAL LETTERS.

It was formerly the custom to begin every noun with a capital: but as this practice was troublesome, and gave the writing or printing a crowded and confused appearance, it has been discontinued. It is, however, very proper to begin with a capital,

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period: and, if the two sentences are *totally independent*, after a note of interrogation or exclamation.

But if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences, are thrown into one general group; or if the construction of the latter sentences depends on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter: as, 'How long, ye simple ones, will ye love simplicity? and the scornors delight in their scorning? and fools hate knowledge?' 'Alas! how different! yet how like the same!'

3. The appellations of the Deity: as, 'God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit.'

4. Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships: as, 'George, York, the Strand, the Alps, the Thames, the Seahorse.'

5. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places: as, 'Grecian, Roman, English, French, and Italian.'

6. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon, or when it is in a direct form: as, 'Always remember this ancient maxim: 'Know thyself.' 'Our great Lawgiver says, 'Take up thy cross daily, and follow me.' But when a quotation is brought in obliquely after a comma, a capital is unnecessary: as, 'Solomon observes, 'that pride goes before destruction.'

The first word of an example may also very properly begin with a capital: as, 'Temptation proves our virtue.'

7. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books: as, 'Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language;' 'Thomson's Seasons;' 'Rollin's Ancient History.'

8. The first word of every line in poetry.

9. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals: as, 'I write:' 'Hear, O earth.'

Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.



## ADDRESS TO YOUNG STUDENTS.

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THE Compiler of these elements of the English language, hopes it will not be deemed inconsistent with the nature and design of his work, to make a short address to the young persons engaged in the study of it, respecting their future walks in the paths of literature, and the chief purpose to which they should apply their acquisitions.

In forming this Grammar, and the volume of illustrations connected with it, the author was influenced by a desire to facilitate your progress in learning, and, at the same time, to impress on your minds principles of piety and virtue. He wished also to assist, in some degree, the labours of those who are cultivating your understandings, and providing for you a fund of rational and useful employment; an employment calculated to exclude those frivolous pursuits, and that love of ease and sensual pleasure, which enfeeble and corrupt the minds of many inconsiderate youth, and render them useless to society.

Without your own best exertions, the concern of others for your welfare, will be of little avail: with them, you may fairly promise yourselves success. The writer of this address, therefore, recommends to you, an earnest co-operation with the endeavors of your friends to promote your improvement and happiness. This co-operation, whilst it secures your own progress, will afford you the heart-felt satisfaction, of knowing that you are cherishing the hopes, and augmenting the pleasures, of those with whom you are connected by the most endearing ties. He recommends to you also, serious and elevated views of the studies in which you may be engaged. Whatever may be your attainments, never allow yourselves to rest satisfied with mere literary acquisitions, nor with a selfish or contracted application of them. When they advance only the interests of this stage of being, and look not beyond the present transient scene, their influence is circumscribed within a very narrow sphere. The great business of this life is to prepare, and qualify us, for the enjoyment of a better, by cultivating a pure and humble state of mind, and cherishing habits of piety towards God, and benevolence to men. Every thing that promotes or retards this important work, is of great moment to you, and claims your first and most serious attention.

It, then, the cultivation of letters, and an advancement in knowledge, are found to strengthen and enlarge your minds, to purify and exalt your pleasures, and to dispose you to pious and virtuous sentiments and conduct, they produce excellent effects; which, with your best endeavors to improve them, and the Divine blessing superadded, will not fail to render you, not only wise and good yourselves, but also the happy instruments of diffusing wisdom, religion, and goodness around you. Thus improved, your acquisitions become handmaids to virtue; and they may eventually serve to increase the rewards which the Supreme Being has promised to faithful and well-directed exertions, for the promotion of truth and goodness amongst men.

But if you counteract the hopes of your friends, and the tendency of these attainments; if you grow vain of your real or imaginary distinctions, and regard with contempt, the virtuous, unlettered mind; if you suffer yourselves to be absorbed in over-curious or trifling speculations; if your heart and principles be debased and poisoned, by the influence of corrupting and pernicious books, for which no elegance of composition can make amends; if you spend so much of your time in literary engagements, as to make them interfere with higher occupations, and lead you to forget, that pious and benevolent action is the great end of your being: if such be the unhappy misapplication of your acquisitions and advantages,—instead of becoming a blessing to you, they will prove the occasion of greater condemnation; and, in the hour of serious thought, they may excite the painful reflections,—that it would have been better for you, to have remained illiterate and unaspiring; to have been confined to the humblest walks of life; and to have been even hewers of wood and drawers of water all your days.

Contemplating the dangers to which you are exposed, the sorrows and dishonour which accompany talents misapplied, and a course of indolence and folly, may you exert your utmost endeavors to avoid them! Seriously reflecting on the great end for which you were brought into existence; on the bright and encouraging examples of many excellent young persons; and on the mournful deviations of others, who once were promising; may you be so wise as to choose and follow that path, which leads to honor, usefulness, and true enjoyment! This is the morning of your life, in which pursuit is ardent, and obstacles readily give way to vigour and perseverance. Embrace this favourable season; devote yourselves to the acquisition of knowledge and virtue; and humbly pray to God that he may bless your labours. Often reflect on the advantages you possess, and on the source from whence they are all derived. A lively sense of the privileges and blessings, by which you have been distinguished, will induce you to render to your heavenly Father, the just returns of gratitude and love: and these fruits of early goodness will be regarded by him as acceptable offerings, and secure to you his favour and protection.

Whatever difficulties and discouragements may be found in resisting the allurements of vice, you may be humbly confident, that Divine assistance will be afforded to all your good and pious resolutions; and that every virtuous effort will have a correspondent reward. You may rest assured too, that all the advantages arising from vicious indulgencies, are light and contemptible, as well as exceedingly transient, compared with the substantial enjoyments, the present pleasures, and the future hopes, which result from piety and virtue. The Holy Scriptures assure us, that "The ways of wisdom are ways of pleasantness, and that all her paths are peace;" "that religion has the promise of the life that now is, and of that which is to come;" and that the truly good man, whatever may be the condition allotted to him by Divine Providence, "in all things give thanks, and rejoices even in tribulation."—Some of these sentiments have been finely illustrated by a celebrated poet. The author of this address presents the illustration to you, as a striking and beautiful portrait of virtue: with his most cordial wishes, that your hearts and lives may correspond to it; and that your happiness here, may be an earnest of happiness hereafter.

"Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
 Virtue alone is happiness below :
 The only point where human bliss stands still ;
 And tastes the good, without the fall to ill :
 Where only merit constant pay receives,
 Is bless'd in what it takes, and what it gives,
 The joy unequal'd, if its end it gain,
 And if it lose, attended with no pain :
 Without satiety, though e'er so bless'd ;
 And but more relish'd as the more distress'd :
 The broadest mirth unfeeling folly wears,
 Less pleasing far, than virtue's very tears :
 Good, from each object, from each place acquir'd
 For ever exercis'd, yet never tir'd ;
 Never elated, while one man's oppress'd ;
 Never dejected, while another's bless'd :
 And where no wants, no wishes can remain ;
 Since but to wish more virtue, is to gain.—
 For him alone hope leads from goal to goal,
 And opens still, and opens on his soul ;
 Till lengthen'd on to faith, and unconfin'd,
 It pours the bliss that fills up all the mind."

THE END.



